DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 239 508 FL 014 198

TITLE	English Teachers' Journal (Israel), Number 29.
INSTITUTION	Ministry of Education and Culture, Jerusalem (Israel). English Inspectorate.
PUB DATE	Jan 84
NOTE	88p.; Incorporates "English Teaching Guidance." Table of Contents pages are printed in Hebrew as well as in English.
AVAILABLE FROM	English Inspectorate, Ministry of Education and Culture, Jerusalem 91911, Israel.
PUB TYPE	Reports - Descriptive (141) -- Guides - Classroom Use - Guides (For Teachers) (052) -- Collected Works - Serials (022)
JOURNAL CIT	English Teachers' Journal (Israel); n29 Jan 1984
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC04 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Computer Assisted Instruction; Educational Television; Elementary Secondary Education; *English (Second Language); Error Analysis (Language); Foreign Countries; Hebrew; Indexes; *Instructional Materials; Language Research; *Language Tests; Oral Language; Periodicals; Program Descriptions; Reading Comprehension; Scholarly Journals; *Second Language Instruction; *Teaching Methods; Writing (Composition)
IDENTIFIERS	*Israel

ABSTRACT

This journal includes current information for English teachers (new publications, resource materials, textbooks, tests, and trends) and these articles: "Reliability in the Oral Bagrut Test" (Raphael Gefen); "A Methodological Approach to 'Rewrite Sentence' Drills" (Eliyahu Galore); "Translation as a Bagrut Subject" (Isaac Morris); "Teaching English at Gymnasia Herzlia" (Joan Glasner); "Practice Teaching in the Secondary School" (Sheila Schoenberg); "Error Analysis of Free Composition: The Theory and the Practice" (E. A. Levenston); "Television and the English Teacher: Notes from the Classroom" (Eleanor Braun-Satlow); "Learning and Re-Learning to Read" (Yaffa Allony-Feinberg); "The Utility of Oral Reading in Teaching EFL" (Donald Knapp); "Developing Independent Reading Comprehension" (Rivka Kressel); "Written Answers in Hebrew to English Comprehension Questions" (Batia Laufer); "Learning to Read with Comprehension" (Renee Vorhaus); and "News from Instructional Television: Planning for the Next Five Years" (Sheila Been, Dvora Ben-Meir, and Sionah Kronfeld). An index for the journal's issues 8-28, letters to the editor, and article synopses in Hebrew are also included. (MSE)

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ED239508

ISSN 0333-533 X

Ministry of Education and Culture
Pedagogical Secretariat — English Inspectorate

ENGLISH TEACHERS' JOURNAL (Israel)

(incorporating ENGLISH TEACHING GUIDANCE)

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Number 29

January 1984

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Teachers of English are invited to write short articles, reports and letters to the editor. Please write to "English Teachers' Journal", English Inspectorate, Ministry of Education and Culture, Jerusalem, 91 911.

"עלון למורים לאנגלית" מוצא לאור על-ידי הפיקוח על הוראת האנגלית, משרד החינוך והתרבות, ירושלים 91911,
לכתובת זו יש לכוון את פניות הקוראים.

The "ENGLISH TEACHERS' JOURNAL (Israel)" is published by the English Inspectorate, Ministry of Education and Culture, Jerusalem 91 911, Israel, to whom all correspondence should be addressed.

עלון למורים לאנגלית, מס' 29, טבת תשמ"ד, ינואר 1984

ENGLISH TEACHERS' JOURNAL (Israel)

Number 29, January 1984

ISSN 0333-533X

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INFORMATION FOR ENGLISH TEACHERS

English Teachers' Journal and English Teaching Guidance

The newly-designed cover of the ENGLISH TEACHERS' JOURNAL, Number 29, is symbolic not only of a wish to introduce changes in the outer appearance of the JOURNAL but also of the broadening of its contents. The Ministry of Education Publications Committee has decided to incorporate ENGLISH TEACHING GUIDANCE (ETG — a journal of the Division of Rural Education) into the ENGLISH TEACHERS' JOURNAL, which is a national journal catering for all sections of the English teaching public in schools. The ETG has always been very popular with English teachers because of its special style and the practical articles written by teachers in various schools, relating their experiences, successes and failures. Unfortunately, because of its limited distribution, few copies ever reached the many teachers, from primary schools to teacher trainers, who were interested in obtaining copies regularly. The combined publication of the ENGLISH TEACHERS' JOURNAL and ENGLISH TEACHING GUIDANCE can only be beneficial to all English teachers; it will provide important information and interesting theoretical discussions and be at the same time a forum for the exchange of experiences, ideas and experiments in the classroom. The enlarged Editorial Board invites veteran contributors to both periodicals and also the many potential new ones to send in articles and letters of concern to teachers of English in Israel to "The Editors, ENGLISH TEACHERS' JOURNAL, Ministry of Education and Culture, Jerusalem 91911".

News from the Computer Projects for English (from Roberta Stock)

As of this year, the four major courseware development groups working on preparing English as a Foreign Language materials for Israel have been organizationally and pedagogically united under the auspices of the Center for Curriculum Development. These groups, while developing different materials, will be working together to establish joint standards as well as to ensure that there is no overlap. In addition, it has been decided that one of the functions of this new National English Project is to support the development of courseware material for the three most popular computers in Israel — Atari, Apple and Commodore. It has been decided that all of the courses developed by these groups will be made available on all three Computers.

Groups	*Computer*	*Proposed subject/level*
Beersheba Group	Atari	Beginning Level
Kiryat Shmona (Tel Aviv)	Commodore	6th/7th grades
Haifa	Commodore	9th grade
Tel Aviv University	Apple	Intermediate Division level

Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English

This dictionary for teachers and students of English as a foreign language contains a number of entries which are objectionable. The entry for JEW (with no phonetic transcription supplied, although every other entry is transcribed!) reads as follows: "a member of the race or religion of people living in the land where CHRIST was born about 2000 years ago, some of whom now live in Israel and others in various countries, chiefly in the western world. USAGE: A slang usage of this word may sometimes be met with, but should be avoided as it is likely to give offence to Jewish people". It is a very strange practice to define a religious grouping in terms of the place where the founder of another religion was born; one could argue that Jesus was himself a Jew so the whole definition is tautological. The entry for CHRIST reads as follows: "the man who established Christianity, considered by Christians to be the son of God and to be still alive in heaven where he forms one of the 3 persons of the TRINITY". In other words, the entry for CHRIST is purely theological — there is no indication *where* Jesus was born and so "the land where CHRIST was born" remains a lexicographical mystery!

Among the tables at the end of the book is one entitled *Nationality and Money*, under the headings of *Country, Adjective, Language, Money*. Every entry in that table is a sovereign state (there are two entries, for example, for *Korea* (North and South), although nobody claims that they are not the same nationality); every "nationality" listed is a "nation" (sovereign state), with the debatable exception of the *United Kingdom* (Northern Ireland, England, Scotland, Wales). There is, however, one glaring exception: the entry *"Palestine"* — country *Palestine*, adjective *Palestinian*, language *Arabic*, money (left blank). Including "Palestine" in this list of otherwise sovereign states is clearly the expression of a political opinion and not a purely lexicographical decision. If we associate these two entries — "Jew" and "Palestine" — we must conclude that the dictionary was very intent on *not* linking "Jew" with "Palestine". Incidentally, the entry for ZIONISM reads: "the political movement to establish and develop an independent state of Israel in Palestine for the Jews", and offers as a model sentence "This organization is not Zionist"...

After a long and serious correspondence with the editors of the dictionary, they agreed to change these entries in the next edition. However, the management of the company overruled the decision of their own lexicographers and stated that their editors (i.e. their scientific experts)) were not authorized to agree to these changes and that there would be no changes made in further editions. This dictionary will, of course, not be used in Israeli schools, and the English Teaching Committee of the Ministry of Education and Culture is now considering further action.

"English Language Officer", British Council

The new English Language Officer of The British Council, Mr. Ian Seaton, has now taken up his appointment and has already met large numbers of teachers at the various Summer Schools and Conferences held by the English Inspectorate, the English Teachers' Association of Israel (ETAI) and the University Teachers of English in Israel (UTELI). The English teaching profession looks forward to continuing the long and fruitful tradition of co-operation with the Council and wishes Ian every success in his period of duty here. We likewise wish his predecessor, Dr. Peter Hargreaves, every success in his new appointment with the British Council in England.

New Reader for Grades 6—9: "Once there was ..."

This collection of graded stories for listening and reading comprehension by Helen Levenston consists of texts and exercises, based on folk tales and legends from England, U.S.A., Morocco, Yemen and Israel. It is available from GOOD TIMES, POB 3576, Jerusalem, 91035; Tel. 02-525353. The book is on the Approved List of the Ministry of Education and Culture as supplementary enrichment material.

Newspapers in Simplified English

The GOOD TIMES Publishing Company issues the following monthly newspapers:

ABC TIMES — for Grades 5, weaker 6, good Grade 4.
JUST FOR YOU — for Grades 6 and weaker 7.
GOOD TIMES — for Grades 7, 8, 9.
SUNSHINE — for Grade 4; newspaper, fun sheet, pictures, puzzles, songs; vocabulary, alphabet, simple structures.

The address of the publishers is: GOOD TIMES, POB 3576, Jerusalem, 91035. Tel.: 02-525353.

THE JERUSALEM POST publishes the following monthly newspapers:
HEY, THERE! — for Grades 7—9 and less advanced older students.
STUDENT POST — for Grades 10—12.

The address of the publishers is: THE JERUSALEM POST, POB 81, Jerusalem 91000. Tel.: 02-528181, ext. 218.

Repeat Notice: Gemer Examination Papers (Two Points), 1976-1982

This collection of past examination papers is available from GOOD TIMES, address as above. Teachers will probably find this publication useful for acquainting their pupils with the format and level of the examination as well as giving them training in the techniques of examination-taking.

New Publication: An English Song Book (and cassette)

This song book and cassette are meant for teachers — the songs range from those suitable for young beginners to the more sophisticated songs suitable for older learners; the material will be used at different levels of proficiency and for different ages. Notes are provided where appropriate to indicate historical or social background, language points (e.g. grammatical structures), linguistic information, etc.

This material is a joint publication of the English Inspectorate and the Pedagogic Centers of the Ministry of Education and Culture. Prices are: Song book 100 shekels, cassette 200 shekels. In order to buy the book and/or cassette, follow the same procedure as with the book "Jewish Festivals", as described below.

Repeat Notice: "Jewish Festivals"

Contents: activities, illustrations, explanations, reading passages, games, exercises etc. on the subject of the Jewish Holidays and Festivals. Each page has been prepared in such a way that an "electronic stencil" may be made from it for photocopying at school or in the local Pedagogic Center of the Ministry. The publication is for teachers only — a "book of suggestions" for different Grades and levels. The publication is obtainable from the National Pedagogic Center, price 300 shekels. Arrangements for payment are as follows:

יש לשלם בבנק הדואר את מחיר החומר המזומן, לפקודת משרד החינוך, המרכזים הפדגוגיים, חשבון מס' 5-10410-0. את העתק הקבלה יש לשלוח לעזרא מזרחי, מרכזיים פדגוגיים, משרד החינוך, דוד המלך 8, ירושלים 91911. יש לרשום את שם הפריט המזומן, מספר העותקים המבוקש, והמען למשלוח החומר.

פרטים נוספים בטלפון: 02-238331, 02-238334, 02-238348

Repeat Notice: TEACHING THE PEDAGOGICAL GRAMMAR OF ENGLISH, revised and edited by Raphael Gefen

This handbook for teachers and guide to the English Curriculum for Israel schools is available from "Sefer Le'oved" (Tel Aviv — Ben Avigdor 8, Tel. 337792; Jerusalem — Hillel 4). New teachers (especially new immigrant teachers from English-speaking countries, whose academic training in their countries of origin was not in Applied Linguistics or Teaching English as a Foreign Language) and students will find it particularly useful.

The book outlines the role of teaching grammar in the curriculum and argues for teaching grammar as a meaningful, contextualized activity, integrated with the teaching of the language skills (and in so doing, clarifies the difference between a "pedagogical" and a "scientific" grammar). The book also contains a detailed linguistic analysis of the various Grammar Structures (all taught in the form of meaningful sentence patterns not as abstract rules) taught at the different levels

of schooling in Israel. Wherever necessary, didactic advice is given and potential difficulties due to mother-tongue interference are indicated. Teacher-trainers and teacher-counsellors are especially called upon to make sure their "charges" buy a copy of this book (together with the Curriculum itself); student-teachers should be required to use this book as part of their reading and study for papers they will be writing on the teaching of English grammar or on the linguistic analysis of various English syntactic structures from the pedagogical point of view.

N.B. Please note the following erratum: page 9, line 17 — delete entire line "subtle differences . . . to" and replace by: "not involve the systematic translation of sentences from the one language to".

The English Curriculum for Schools

The Curriculum (Grades 5-12) is available from 'Maalot' publishers. Every teacher should have a copy of the Curriculum, and Teacher-Trainers and Teacher-Counsellors should also ensure that their 'charges' have a copy. The Curriculum is an indispensable part of the programme for studies for Teacher-Training (Pre-Service and In-Service). The address of the publishers is: Carlebach 29, Tel Aviv (Tel.: 03-284191). Individual copies of the Curriculum can be obtained from the branch of the publishers at Rehov Borochov 20, Tel Aviv. Schools may order copies by means of the form sent to them from the Curriculum Centre, Ministry of Education and Culture.

Repeat Notice: EMT READER

The "English Matriculation Texts (EMT)" series (editor Alice Shalvi) has now brought out two Readers containing the set texts for the Bagrut examination (no essays), one for the 5-point level and the other for the 4-point level. The anthologies contain plays, games and short stories, together with glossaries and accompanying comprehension exercises. Some of the full-length plays in the syllabus are available in separate EMT editions.

In addition to the set texts, supplementary literary works have been included (not in the syllabus), as well as explanatory material on both authors and texts. "In an attempt to demonstrate that the syllabus is not a random collection of individual works, we have presented them gathered in a series of study-units, loosely linking a number of items which either share a common theme or illustrate a particularly literary device, method or genre" (from the Editor's Foreword).

New textbook: "English Here and Now" (ESH series)

This new textbook, by Roberta Stock and Ruth Olin with Miriam Schcolnik, is a new book in the English for Speakers of Hebrew (ESH) series, meant for

weak classes in Grades 9 or 10. It is the first of a two book course designed for secondary school pupils who need a rapid review of the basic grammatical structures and vocabulary of English and, at the same time, practice in the skills of speaking, reading and writing. *English Here and Now* has 13 units, each containing grammar generalizations, exercises of various degrees of difficulty and control, reading passages (both narrative and expository), dialogues, visual stimuli, short informative passages on different topics of interest, games and riddles, and a list of words to remember. The book assumes:

(i) *a minimal approach* — the grammar generalizations are kept simple, with fewer exercises than in the other ESH books, so as to allow room for supplementary materials should the teacher consider this necessary for his/her classes;

(ii) *a modular approach* — there are no re-entries or reviews in the book, each unit standing on its own so as to allow for flexibility of use and the teacher deciding where a particular class needs to start or which units can be omitted;

(iii) *a visual approach* — there are many photographs in the book to illustrate some of the reading passages, to stimulate the pupils' imagination and to motivate various classroom activities.

Although the book is a review of the basics, it also provides communicative activities, as advocated in current methodological theories. The vocabulary is controlled, and it is assumed that the teacher will supply the meaning of unfamiliar lexical items which are not glossed or listed in the WORDS TO REMEMBER at the end of each chapter. The second book of the series will include LISTENING COMPREHENSION exercises and will be accompanied by a cassette; it will be available in Summer 1984.

New publication: "Can I Help You ?"

This two-booklet (so far) series by Brenda Liptz and Rivka Horovitz is meant for the very weak learners in secondary schools and is an application of the various suggestions made in this JOURNAL for teaching weak and less-able (more exactly "least-able" — see JOURNAL Number 28) pupils. These two booklets are accompanied by a Teacher's Guide. They contain material suitable for LISTENING COMPREHENSION, READING COMPREHENSION and SPEECH WORK and are based on vocabulary acquisition rather than grammar generalizations and in general on various kinds of communicative activities relevant to Israeli pupils who are weak in English but seek minimal proficiency in the language. The booklets are extensively illustrated. Publishers: Curriculum Development Centre, Ministry of Education and Culture.

New publication in preparation : Passages for Translation

A collection of passages for translation from English to Hebrew (annotated) with an anthology of articles about translation is now being prepared by Professor E. A. Levenston of the Hebrew University. They will be suitable study and practice material for pupils intending to take translation as an option in the 6-point Bagrut. Further details will be published in the next issue of the JOURNAL. For more information about the arguments for and against the use of translation, see this JOURNAL, Number 27 and 28.

Listening Comprehension Test : Bagrut Examinations Summer 1983

The test consisted of the following text and questions and was preceded by introductory matter in Hebrew and English, the Hebrew introduction being as follows :

אתם עומדים לשמוע קטע משודר. אל תביטו בשאלון בעת השידור הראשון. אחרי השידור בפעם הראשונה אפשר לפתוח את השאלון ולעיין בו, אך עדיין אין לרשום את התשובות. בפעם השנייה, מותר לעיין בשאלון תוך כדי השידור, ולסמן את התשובות בעיגול. לאחר השידור השני, יותר לכם לעיין שנית בשאלון ולהמשיך לסמן את תשובותיכם.

Good morning,

You are about to hear a report about *education in China.* You will hear some information about *educational progress* in China and about some *educational problems* in that country. This report is taken from an *interview* with the Minister of Education in the Chinese government, whose name is Mr. Gao Yi.

In this *interview*, the Minister of Education described what has been happening in Chinse education since *1949.* That year, 1949, was the year when the "People's Republic of China" was founded. The Minister mentioned three important developments since 1949. One development was that the number of pupils in *primary schools* (classes 1 to 5) is now six times larger than in 1949. A second development is that the number of pupils in *secondary schools* is 45 times larger! And athird development is that at *universities* the number of students is now 10 times larger than in 1949. These numbers are certainly very impressive, especially in *secondary schools,* where the number of pupils has increased *far more* than in primary schools or universities.

But this progress has *not* been able to solve the very serious problems that exist in Chinese education. The Minister of Education mentioned *three* such serious problems. One problem is the fact that there are still *very many children, especially in the villages, who do not go to school at all*! In this interview, the Minister of Education said that the government has the following aim : all children *will have* primary education by the year 1990. "Primary education" in China

means going to school from the age of 6 to the age of 11. But he did *not say* how many children do not go to school *now*, in 1983. How many children, then, are not receiving primary education *now*? We do not know exactly, but we can guess the answer by referring to a speech made five years ago by the Minister of Education, in 1978. The Minister then (in 1978) said that by 1982 (in other words, last year) about 95 per cent of young children *would be* receiving primary education. *If* that aim of 95% had been achieved, it would mean that only 5% of the children do not go to school now. But is it a fact that 95% of the children attend primary school? *No*, the number of children *not* attending school is almost certainly *higher* than 5 per cent. Why do we think it is higher than 5 per cent? Because the Chinese government has *not* said that it in fact *reached* this aim of primary education for 95 per cent of the children. It is reasonable to suppose that if this aim *had been* reached, the government *would have said so*. It is clear, therefore, that *at least* 5 per cent of young children are still outside the classroom.

A second problem is the *drop* in the number of pupils at secondary schools. Last year, the number of secondary school pupils was 9 million *less* than it was in 1980. The probable reason for the lower number of secondary school pupils is the reorganization of secondary schools in order to raise their educational standards and so *make the studies more difficult*. Because of this *raising of educational standards*, weaker pupils have left school.

But even with this drop in the number of secondary school pupils, there are still at least 60 million pupils in secondary schools. Many of these pupils wish to enter university, but there are not many (only a few hundred) universities, teachers' colleges etc., in the whole of China. So a third problem facing Chinese education is at the university level — *not enough university places* for pupils finishing secondary school and also *not enough universities* to produce the scientists, teachers, engineers and other specialists, for a nation of over one thousand million people.

Thank you for listening, and good-bye.

LISTENING COMPREHENSION: Questions

ה ש א ל ו ת

Circle the most suitable answer, according to the context of the passage you have just heard.

הקף בעיגול את התשובה המתאימה ביותר, בהתאם להקשר בקטע ששמעת.

(a) This radio report was based on:

i) a newspaper article named "Educational Progress in China"
ii) a book written by the Minister of Education
iii) a news story from a reporter named Gao Yi
iv) a meeting with the Minister of Education

(b) The greatest increase in the number of pupils and students has been:
   i) in classes 1—5
   ii) in secondary schools
   iii) in universities
   iv) in primary schools

(c) The year "1949" is mentioned because in that year:
   i) the number of pupils in primary schools was six times larger than in 1983
   ii) primary education became compulsory in China
   iii) the first Chinese university was established
   iv) the present Chinese political system was established.

(d) The report stated that many children do not go to school at all, especially:
   i) rich children who receive private education at home
   ii) children in the countryside
   iii) children whose parents are very poor
   iv) children in the cities

(e) The aim of the Ministry of Education is:
   i) primary education for all children by 1990
   ii) kindergarten (nursery school) education for all young children by 1990
   iii) secondary education for all children by 1990
   iv) university education for all who desire it by 1990

(f) How many children do not attend school now?
   i) At least 25%
   ii) Less than 5%, probably
   iii) More than 5%, probably
   iv) About 95%

(g) In 1978, the Minister of Education claimed that by 1982 about 95% of young children would be at school. Was this aim reached?
   i) Probably not, or it would have been published
   ii) No, only 5% go to school
   iii) Possibly, but the Chinese government never publishes statistics
   iv) Yes, 95% go to school

(h) A problem in secondary education today is that:
   i) the number of schools has dropped
   ii) the number of pupils has risen too much — there are not enough schools
   iii) educational standards have dropped
   iv) the number of pupils has fallen

(i) The report tells us that universities in China:
   i) are too few in number to be able to take in all secondary school graduates who wish to go to university

ii) make all secondary school graduates work a year in industry before going to university

iii) are so many in number that even weak pupils in secondary schools are accepted to university

iv) are able to take in all secondary school graduates who wish to go to university

(j) The problem with university graduates is that:

i) there are too many of them, so that many academics are unemployed

ii) employers complain that the academic level of these graduates is too low

iii) there are not enough of them, so that China does not have enough academic manpower

iv) most of them have studied subjects which are not suitable for the Chinese economy

RELIABILITY IN THE ORAL BAGRUT TEST

by *Raphael Gefen*, Ministry of Education

The oral test in the Bagrut is that area of the examination which is still heavily subjective in character, depending on the examiner's evaluation without any set criteria beyond a very vague set of "Guidelines" issued many years by the English Inspectorate, according to which a pupil passes (mark of 6) if he "has understood correctly but his oral expression, while present in a limited degree, is neither fluent nor accurate", while a mark of 5 (in effect, never given) "indicates inadequate comprehension as well as failure in the skills of oral expression". Yet "Listening Comprehension" is a discrete skill whereas this test is aimed at testing another skill, oral production, and in any case for the past nine years this skill of Listening Comprehension has been separately tested; it is uneconomical to test the same skill twice. Even the "group-oral" test, which many schools opt for, does not solve the problem of examiner subjectivity, although it does remove the assessment difficulty of the same person being both the examiner and the evaluator.

In an attempt to draw up a list of reliability criteria to aid them, oral examiners received a Rating Scale which indicated the linguistic features to be tested and how marks were to be allocated; this new matrix was optional and many examiners still preferred their traditional "global" subjective assessment. The following instructions and scale were sent to the examiners, together with the "feedback" questionnaire.

BAGRUT EXAMINATIONS IN ENGLISH : EVALUATION OF THE ORAL EXAMINATION

GUIDELINES FOR A SUGGESTED RATING SCALE

Introduction :

The purpose of the following *recommendation* is to enable a more objective and reliable and so a less impressionistic evaluation of the examinee's performance in the Bagrut oral examination. The use of this Rating Scale will enable:

(i) the different components of the oral skill to be taken into account ;

(ii) a greater spread of marks to occur, ranging from a possible 0 to a possible 10, so that examiners will be able to grade examinees more precisely.

This year (1983) the Rating Scale is a recommendation from the English Inspectorate and is not obligatory ; as a result of feedback from examiners and schools, this Rating Scale (suitably modified) may then become obligatory for future examination dates.

The Rating Scale (10 points, no half-points)

COMPONENT	*MARK*
FLUENCY (2 points)	0 = single sentences or less, hesitant (clearly mentally translating) ; 1 = discourse unit of more than one sentence but still "responding" rather than interacting in a dialogue ; 2 = active dialogue interaction, no hesitations, use of conversation-markers (e. g. tag questions).
VOCABULARY (3 points)	0 = failure to produce or/and serious errors ; 1 = lexical poverty (very simplified vocabulary), searching for words, correct but impoverished ; 2 = correct but not idiomatic, stylistic infelicities ; 3 = rich and idiomatic vocabulary, including stylistic variation where necessary.

GRAMMAR (3 points)

0 = elementary errors, showing failure in Primary School syllabus ;
1 = correct use of Primary School patterns only, non-use of or failure in "higher" patterns ;
2 = correct use of Primary School and Intermediate Division patterns, non-use of or failure in Upper Division patterns ;
3 = correct use of all Syllabus patterns, including "Recognition" grammar patterns of Upper Division.

PRONUNCIATION (2 points)

0 = phonemic errors, both segmental (vowels and consonants) and suprasegmental (stress, intonation) ;
1 = intelligible pronunciation ; marked mother-tongue accent, including vowels and intonation ;
2 = clear and aesthetic pronunciation, no accent or only a slight mother-tongue accent.

Notes :

a) Inability to participate from a "Content" point of view will be reflected in the marks for "Fluency", "Vocabulary" and "Grammar" ;
b) No points are allocated for "Listening Comprehension", of which there is a separate examination ; inadequate Listening Comprehension in the Oral Test will likewise be reflected in the marks for "Vocabulary", "Fluency" and "Grammar" ;
c) Examiners must ascertain beforehand whether examinees have special problems which might affect their performance (stammering, family or personal problems, etc.).

Procedure :

(i) the length of each test (interview-type) is 7—10 minutes ; only one examinee will be tested at a time, unless the GROUP-ORAL TEST has been authorized for the school.
(ii) examiners should take into account only *systematic errors* made by examinees and not *random mistakes* (slips) ; the examiner's approach should be POSITIVE (appreciating examinees' efforts) rather than NEGATIVE (counting errors) ; examinees should be provided with informal opportunities for self-correction ; the *frequency* of the errors should also be taken into account.
(iii) examinees should be given a choice of subjects (up to three).

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(iv) questions should be "graded" — from direct reference questions ("describe the picture" or "tell me about yourself") to discussion questions.

(v) questions should be repeated in different words if not grasped initially, but the examiner should attempt to elicit grammar, vocabulary and fluency criteria to enable him/her to evaluate the examinee fully; however, the examiner may at times assume that an examinee performing well is familiar with the vocabuulary range and grammar of the Upper Division from the general content of the test, even if the actual context does not allow adequate exemplification of the structures and items concerned (nevertheless, the examiner should attempt to elicit this information from the pupil if at all possible).

(vi) questions should be such that the examinee would have been able to answer the question or discuss the issue in his/her mother-tongue.

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR ORAL EXAMINERS, BAGRUT EXAMINATIONS, SUMMER 1983

1. Underline and complete the appropriate sentence:

   a) I used the Rating Scale because .....

   .....

   b) I did not use the Rating Scale because .....

   .....

2. Underline your choice:

   a) I agree with the Suggested Rating Scale.
   b) I agree with the concept of a Rating Scale but consider this one unsatisfactory.
   c) I disagree with the whole concept of a Rating Scale.

3. In my view, the number of points allocated to

   a) *Fluency* (2 points) was/were (i) too many, (ii) too few, (iii) adequate.
   b) *Vocabulary* (3 points) was/were (i) too many, (ii) too few, (iii) adequate.
   c) *Grammar* (3 points) was/were (i) too many, (ii) too few, (iii) adequate.
   d) *Pronunciation* (2 points) was/were (i) too many, (ii) too few, (iii) adequate.

4. In my view, the marking system for

   a) *Fluency* was (i) good, (ii) satisfactory, (iii) unsatisfactory
   b) *Vocabulary* was (i) good, (ii) satisfactory, (iii) unsatisfactory
   c) *Grammar* was (i) good, (ii) satisfactory, (iii) unsatisfactory
   d) *Pronunciation* was (i) good, (ii) satisfactory, (iii) unsatisfactory

5. Comments on the Suggested Rating Scale:

a) FLUENCY: .....

.....

b) VOCABULARY: .....

.....

c) GRAMMAR: .....

.....

d) PRONUNCIATION: .....

.....

If you wish, please give your name and private address, as this will be useful for future correspondence and consultation; however, this is not obligatory and your views will be taken into account in all events.

Examiner Responses

Over 50% of the examiners replied, many doing so with long letters containing valuable comments, indicating a very commendable sense of responsibility. Opinions were divided. On the one hand, examiners welcomed the suggested Rating Scale as providing appropriate criteria of reliability, while not always agreeing on the distribution of marks (some wanting more marks for "pronunciation", others less). Many highly-skilled veteran examiners tried both the traditional "global" approach and the new "criteria" approach, with more or less the same results, and therefore recommended the new approach as especially suited for newer, inexperienced examiners. On the other hand, other veteran examiners rejected the whole concept of a detailed Rating Scale and advocated the subjective "global" approach, claiming that the earlier looser specifications were quite sufficient.

The examiners who criticized the criteria approach argued that it gave lower marks for weaker pupils, compared to past years. This is indeed not surprising, given the "Guidelines" mentioned above; hitherto, hardly anybody failed and even a mark of 6 was a rarity; the average mark was near to 8, which is out of all proportion to the performance on the written test, even for 5-point pupils. However difficult it is for an examiner to fail a pupil sitting opposite him — or even give him a mark of 6 — (and some examiners confessed (prided themselves?) that they did find this impossible), if an examiner is to fulfil his role conscientiously s/he has to be able to give a fail-mark, when the occasion calls for it. One inevitable result of this new criteria-system would be to provide a spread of

marks similar to that now found in the written paper (which includes Listening Comprehension). On the other hand, I got the impression, from reading the examiners' comments that some of them interpreted the Rating Scale too severely and so came out with a score that was too low.

Other examiners objecting to the new Rating Scale likewise stated that for them a mark of "0"(zero) could only indicate total failure and not merely the "inadequate performance" specified in the Rating Scale ; a technical solution for these examiners (including one who wrote at length that under no circumstances could she ever give a mark of "zero") might be to give a total mark of 20, so that "0" becomes "1", and then halve the total score. Yet others pointed to the fact that the oral test usually comes a month or so before the written test, so that a low oral mark will dispirit the weak learner. In fact, most critics of the suggested Rating Scale objected on educational rather than assessment grounds. A number of examiners objected to the exclusion of "Listening Comprehension" from the criteria.

As for the allocation of points, many examiners felt that it was impossible to carry all the detailed criteria in their head and carry on a conversation with the examinee at the same time (the "group-oral" examiners have an advantage here) and, as mentioned above, there was some disagreement as to the allocation and/or definition within each category, especially "fluency" and "pronunciation" (what is "aesthetic pronunciation" or "no accent"?; is the pronunciation of every examiner "aesthetic" or without any "accent", in the special meaning of the term in this context, of course?). Many felt that more points should have been given to "fluency", even though it is the hardest criterion to assess. Others felt that "success in communication" should be the only criterion and not error analysis or linguistic skills (recognizing of course the overlap between these criteria), or that "general performance" should somehow also be evaluated.

An undoubted weak point in this Rating Scale (as indeed for the older "Guidelines") is the assumption that all examinees, whether taking the THREE, FOUR, FIVE or even SIX points examination, are expected to be subject to the same assessment criteria. Whereas this assumption is valid for the comprehension skills of Reading and Listening (not all teachers would agree even here), it should not be so for the production skills of Writing and Speaking. Lower requirements are set for Writing at the THREE and FOUR points levels, so by extension the Speaking skill should also either be a different test (easier) or at least assessed more leniently. I would suggest that a "bonus" of 2 points be given to THREE point examinees and of 1 point for FOUR point examinees (as long as the examinee is making a serious attempt), before the examiner works out the score according to the agreed criteria.

In addition, I would make the following suggestions:

1. teachers (not just examiners) should write to the JOURNAL at once and give their views, in preparation for the 1984 examination date;
2. the Rating Scale, suitably modified as a result of the comments of examiners and now of teachers also, should be tried out again this year (1984), with examiners again being free to adopt it or not and make any modifications they see fit;
3. the Rating Scale should be sent to examiners in a matrix format, making it easier for them to indicate the marks for each category;
4. a further experiment to be tried of "picture-cue cards", such as are used in the Cambridge examinations for English as a Foreign Language, so that the examinee has something to talk about and the examiner can spend more time on assessment and less on desperately searching for topics to talk about to the 21st examinee of the day;
5. in-service meetings of oral examiners should take place in order to clarify the various criteria on the Rating Scale (this was unfortunately not done for the above experiment); examiners who feel that they are simply incapable of giving a low mark on an oral test should draw the necessary personal conclusions and withdraw from the ranks.

Many teachers now feel that the oral test deserves more marks than the mere 10 points now given, as compared to the 100 points given to the written paper. Teaching English as an international means of communication involves a great deal of speech work, which is not easy to carry out under school conditions. However, giving a higher percentage for oral production depends on a more objective assessment and a *credible* spread of marks. Establishing an appropriate criterion-based rating scale will be a powerful argument for justifying a higher percentage of the total mark for this skill.

A METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH TO "REWRITE SENTENCES" DRILLS

by *Eliyahu Galore*, Tel Aviv

In the five-point matriculation question-paper this year (1983), a new language test-item was the so-called "rewrite sentences" or rather "paraphrased sentences" exercise. This is meant to be another way of testing our pupils' *productive* language skills and it — indirectly — encourages the teaching and practising of structures on an "advanced and sophisticated level" as was indicated in the

ENGLISH TEACHERS' JOURNAL, No. 27, Sept. 1982. Following the Inspectorate's "early warning" in the past school year, teachers probably gave "rewrite sentence" questions in their grammar-tests in Grade 12 classes in order to familiarize pupils with this "new" language test-item. In the future, however, "paraphrased sentences" might be used as part of the teaching — or revision — of many of the structure-patterns required or recommended in the "English Curriculum" of the Inspectorate in all the grades of the secondary school Upper Division, but certainly from Grade 11. In other words, pupils should also come across "paraphrased sentences" not only in test-papers in the language teaching-learning process. While there is nothing to be ashamed of in preparing pupils for their matriculation examination, the main aim — obviously — is language mastery — with the subsequent result of good test performance.

Here is a methodological suggestion for the application of structural exercises of the "rewrite sentences" type:

By the time pupils reach Grade ten or Grade eleven in secondary school, they have already been taught — and hopefully have learned — a great number of structures (rules of grammar) and the time has come that they should know how to handle these structures interchangeably for the sake of *stylistic variety* (in writing) and for the fuller mastery of the language *through understanding the ways it functions.* Within the framework of the "English Curriculum", I suggest — as a *basic* "paraphrased sentences" training — seven categories of structures of words/phrases requiring particular attention: indirect speech, passives, inversion, concession, causation, double comparative, and verb+noun clause as object. This, more or less, indicates also the order of difficulty from easy to complicated and also an order of frequency, from very frequent to less so, thus a recommended practice — sequence. A higher level of practice, requiring more sophistication (perhaps only in Grade 12) will be indicated later.

In addition to our other language teaching activities, we may handle each week *one* of the above-mentioned categories. A suggested "recipe": first give three sentences of identical structure problems to be solved collectively — groups, pairs, teacher's help etc.; then present five sentences of the same type to be paraphrased *individually, but controlled collectively in the same lesson.* Next week: tackle a new structure problem in the above-mentioned collective way, but in the individual practice give 3-5 sentences of the new type and three sentences of the formerly-studied structure — in mixed order. Continue the procedure all through the seven categories, taking care that in the individual practice (always controlled in the class, in the same lesson) all formerly-studied structures appear with one or two sentences. One such session need not take up more than 20–25 minutes.

In addition to the suggestions made by the Inspectorate in two circulars sent to schools last year, here are some examples for each category (from suggestions of teachers participating in in-service meetings on this teaching-strategy):

I. Indirect Speech:
   1. "Don't neglect your work", the teacher told the class.
      The teacher warned...
   2. "Surely, you can't be serious", I said.
      I wondered...

II. Passives:
   1. They have told no one the secret of their success.
      No one...
   2. You cannot serve cakes baked two weeks ago!
      Cakes...

III. Inversion:
   1. She's not only bright, she's also pretty.
      Not only...
   2. I've never awaited the postman with such anxiety before.
      Never...

IV. Concession:
   1. It doesn't matter whether you object, they will still get married.
      Despite...
   2. In spite of constant criticism, he refused to resign.
      Although...

V. Causation:
   1. The high standard of their work was a result of their efficient cooperation.
      Due to...
   2. His behaviour was so shocking that he was expelled from the school.
      Because...

VI. Double comparative:
   1. As people grow older, they tend to put on more weight.
      The older...
   2. Smoking too much makes you feel bad.
      The more...

VII. Verb + Noun Clause as Object:
   1. I guess you're about forty.
      My...
   2. The air hostess was announcing that the plane was about to land.
      The hostess's...

This language practice might look more "natural" if the sentences to be paraphrased are taken — as far as possible in full or with slight alterations — from the current reading material, literary or non-fiction prose.

Following this "basic" course of roughly 7–8 weeks (20–25 minutes once a week) in "paraphrased sentences", during which pupils get used to structural manipulations of a relatively simple character, the way is open for more sophisticated demands in paraphrase practice. The real aim — again — is to make our pupils aware of the variations the language offers them, thereby making their oral or written language production richer, clearer and sometimes even more meaningful. The general feature of this particular practice is indicated by the instruction-giving lead-sentence: "Rewrite the following sentences using the word/s given in capital letters; this word or these words may be at the beginning, in the middle or at the end of the new sentences but it (they) must not be altered in any way." One may also add that the new sentence should be as similar as possible in meaning to the original sentence.

This is now open sea and you may invent any paraphrasing task with synonyms, opposites but mainly with more words which *involve structural changes* of some kind. Some of the examples that will follow may indicate the wide variety of possibilities — and the difficulty in coming up with practice sentences. However, you may be helped — to a certain extent — if you recall words requiring structures that pupils in Israel often find it difficult to cope with (e.g. suggest, prevent, avoid, due to, want etc.), the scores of phrasal verbs ("prepositional verbs") you have taught in your English course or you have made the pupils aware of when encountering them in the various texts read in class. You should also think of the numerous idiomatic phrases that have — hopefully — accumulated in the active-passive memory of your pupils in the course of eight years of studying the language. If you follow the methodological pproach suggested for the "basic course" you may teach new phrasal verbs or new idioms (two or three at a time) in the first sentences of the practice-sheet meant for pair or group work with some teacher-help, but in the following individual practice give only tasks the pupils should be familiar with from former studies. Then this "rewrite" part of the lesson, once a week, will again be a good opportunity to recall, repeat and use formerly studied expressions and structures as well as to learn some new ones. Each of the new phrases will then come up in later practice-sentences and in test-papers.

Here are some examples for the second group of "rewrite sentences" (these too coming from teachers participating in in-service meetings):

I'm always punctual. (TIME)
The toaster isn't working. (ORDER)

There was no gas in my car. (RUN OUT)
He hardly managed to pass the test. (ALMOST)
He resembles his father. (TAKES)
You violate the law when you go through a red light. (VIOLATION)
He was educated by a distant relative. (UP)
I've had enough of your complaints. (FED UP)
My cousins and I never agree on anything. (EYE)
I didn't hear her footsteps because of the noise of the engines. (PREVENTED)
It wasn't as difficult to find the way as I'd imagined. (LESS)
The timetable says that the Haifa train stops at Hadera. (SUPPOSED)
Our parents usually watched romantic, musical and western films in their youth. (ACCUSTOMED)
Our friends will probably come late. (TURN)

TRANSLATION AS A BAGRUT SUBJECT

by *Isaac Morris*, Jerusalem

In a previous article I expressed my reluctance to deal, as invited, with the main issue of adopting translation as an alternative test item for the Bagrut examination. Instead, I confined myself to submitting my reflections on the use or misuse of translation as an auxiliary means of instruction. Further reflection on the subject has now induced me to tackle the main issue and has led me, however belatedly, to offer suggestions which may prove to be worth considering.

My views derive from a recollection of my long experience as a teacher of English locally which made me duly aware of the numerous factors involved in what is undoubtedly an extremely complex and hence difficult subject of instruction. The main factors are of course clearly the aims and objectives; but beyond them are vital features which demand consideration when dealing with any aspect of the subject. These are, perhaps basically, the class and school conditions for effective teaching, the varied talents of the pupils generally or just specifically for mastering a foreign language. Perhaps apart from and above all the factors for resolving the main issue, is the consideration of the eventual application of English in continued studies at university or technical college or only as required in any field of employment.

Before any attempt to resolve the issue it is well to start with the contrasting features of the two types of examination, namely composition (essay writing) and translation into Hebrew, as these may still require clarification.

Unquestionably the composition of an essay may be considered as purely active, involving as it does the correct application of grammatical forms, a relatively wide range of vocabulary and certainly the avoidance of orthographical errors. To what extent the notional side is justly considered may depend on the type of external examiner (hence, perhaps, the possibility of varying assessments).

Translation as a substitute for the essay cannot be clearly defined until the purpose and evaluation are formally denoted. At this stage it is (at least to me) somewhat ambiguous. In one sense it is purely receptive (passive), calling only for understanding. However, the rendering of the notions expressed in a given text in corresponding phraseology in another language is undoubtedly an active process, which for efficient application requires instruction and considerable practice.

Reverting to the factor of the eventual applications of English in further studies or employment, the proposal to substitute translation for the essay would be unfavourable if adopted simply as a means of reducing the percentage of failures in the Bagrut examination. If, however, the purpose of the proposed change is in effect a means of testing the pupils' reading ability, why should not reading be established as a leading major aim and as such call for an appropriate syllabus? This syllabus would need to be designed predominantly to improve the pupils' reading ability through extensive study of texts, with close attention given to the variety of language features, such as idioms, literary, colloquial, technical and above all syntactical forms.

The alternative syllabus suggested here is intended as leading to the final examination qualifying for a pass mark in English. I am quite aware, however, that it would be both unfair and misleading to ignore the different values of the two types of examination. For this reason, I offer the suggestion that the distinction between the two courses be donated on the leaving certificate by referring to the subject as respectively English (Syl. A) for the standard course and English (Syl. B) for the optional alternative course. (Naturally the signification of the qualification would be made clear to all concerned in the published curriculum.)

The change as suggested here would, in my opinion, be of particular interest to the universities. Whereas the English departments demand for entrance a satisfactory standard in all language applications, almost all the other faculties require a knowledge of English only for reading purposes. Indeed I have heard it frequently asserted that they could not function efficiently without intensive reference to works in English. For them, at least, a pass in English (Syl. B) could prove to be satisfactory and require no further qualifying test. The English department would, in turn, benefit by having to deal only with applicants holding English (Syl. A) certificate.

It may be well to point out that any objection to the introduction of translation in the general curriculum could be disregarded as irrelevant since it concerns only

the final year following seven years of instruction conducted entirely according to the standard syllabus.

Undoubtedly, nevertheless, there would be serious difficulties to overcome, particularly if the choice of English (Syl. B) is made optional, thus possibly creating the problem of handling a mixed class. Another major obstacle may be the case of teachers who have not mastered Hebrew adequately for the task of guiding and exercising the pupils in translation. These problematic difficulties certainly call for appropriate administrative measures, which may be deemed to be impracticable.

I therefore conclude my article by repeating that it is offered informally in response to a request for my views on this particular controversial subject.

TEACHING ENGLISH AT GYMNASIA HERZLIA

by *Joan Glasner*, Gymnasia Herzlia

Teaching English at the Gymnasia Herzlia school is both a challenging and a rewarding experience. One of the reasons for this is the wide diversity of our student population. One third of our junior high school pupils are bused in from what are designated as disadvantaged areas of the city, while the rest of our students come from middle and upper socioeconomic backgrounds. Teaching students of widely different backgrounds can be problematic as well as rewarding. New and more effective pedagogy is constantly being sought and the school administrators encourage innovation and initiative on the part of the teachers. Most of the twenty English teachers on our staff are Israelis who have lived for a period of time in an English-speaking country, while six are native speakers of English. A spirit of friendship and cooperation exists among the teachers.

Two recent developments have increased the effectiveness of English instruction in our school. One is the two extra hours per week the teachers now have at their disposal, and the other is the wider availability of electronic equipment. Our experience in these areas may be of interest to other teachers.

Teachers are free to choose a project of interest to them to work on during their two extra hours per week in school. Some of these projects (which were decided upon by the teachers together with the Head of Department) are:

1. *The Test Bank*: The Test Bank consists of a series of files containing items taken from teacher-made tests and categorized according to topic. There is a file of test items for each level of each grade, filed according to topic (grammatical structure, reading comprehension, vocabulary etc.). There is a teacher in charge of collecting items and preparing the files for each grade. The files also contain

folders and worksheets that have been prepared by teachers (role-play exercises, songs, games, reading passages, dialogues, guided writing exercises etc.). The Test Bank is kept in the Teachers' Room and teachers may use the material only there.

2. *The resource closet*: One of our teachers is in charge of maintaining and adding materials to our resource closet which contains posters, books, cassettes, pictures and other teaching aids. The posters, pictures etc. are catalogued by number and teachers sign themselves out for materials borrowed.

3. *Materials for disadvantaged students*: A team of three teachers whose particular field of concern is disadvantaged learners is preparing materials (including audio-cassettes) suitable for C-level students. These materials are also kept in the resource closet for present and future use by all English teachers.

4. *The English language newspaper*: The "Gymnasia Times" appears once a year and functions as a showcase for items our students have written in English throughout the school year. The two student editors select the items to be included in the paper according to reader interest potential. Most, but by no means all, of the articles are light in tone and easy reading. Poems, puzzles and jokes are among the most popular features. The school's Hebrew language paper is usually more academic and serious in tone.

5. *Software for the language laboratory*: Two teachers use their extra hours to help prepare the tapes for the language laboratory and assist other teachers in preparing for their lessons there.

6. *Tutoring*: Several Junior High School teachers spend their extra hours tutoring students who have recently been transferred from a lower to a higher level English group. Special tutoring is usually necessary to help these students catch up on the material and reach the required level in their new groups.

7. *School-wide activity*: We have a school-wide English language activity in the Junior High School Division at the end of every school year. This activity may be an inter-class spelling bee, an English Day or an English Song Festival. Two teachers are in charge of organizing this activity.

The availability of electronic equipment in schools is probably one of the most exciting developments in the field of education in general and in the field of language instruction in particular. In addition to the influence educational technology has had on methodology in language teaching, this equipment also has the advantage of stimulating student interest and motivation by adding variety to the lessons and providing an alternative to the teacher as the main source of input in the classroom.

The tape recorder is probably the most easily available piece of electronic equipment that we have for language instruction, and it is relatively inexpensive. We have built up a "library" of cassettes amongst which are:

1. The *Gabby and Debby* and *Here, There, and Everywhere* audio materials produced by the Instructional Television Centre.
2. The cassettes from *Make Your Point, Mainline Skills* (available from the British Council) and *Communicating in English* (Kernerman) textbooks.
3. The cassettes of literary texts for the Bagrut from the Instructional Television Centre and Everyman's University.
4. Songs for the teaching of English (e.g. Sunday Afternoon, Mr. Monday, and Goodbye Rainbow).
5. Pop songs.
6. News broadcasts in English (B.B.C. and Voice of America).
7. Listening comprehension passages (Donn Byrne, English in Context, etc.).
8. Dramatized readings from supplementary readers.

The tape recorder can be put to use in several ways. In addition to using the cassette library, many teachers and pupils bring their own cassettes to use in class. Teachers also borrow audio materials from the British Council. Students sometimes record dramatizations and role-play exercises or present projects and reports recorded on cassettes instead of in written forms. Twelfth grade students preparing for their group oral exams are usually required to record at least one discussion topic on a cassette as a home assignment. The students can then monitor themselves and/or the teacher can listen to the conversations at her leisure and comment upon the student's performance either in writing or by recording her comments directly on the cassette. In addition, some teachers find recording their own lessons from time to time to be an enlightening and valuable method of self-critique.

Our school introduced closed-circuit television ten years ago. This video-equipment allows all classes to view telecasts at times slotted on the school time table and to proceed at their own pace. There are also methodological advantages to the use of video-equipment since the teacher can stop the tape at certain points or replay certain scenes. (A tip for restoring video tapes damaged by dampness: dry them out for half an hour in the chemistry laboratory oven.)

Our language laboratory seats 40 students in individual booths. Its primary advantage is that it provides for individualized practice and full participation of every member of the class for an entire lesson, which is not possible in an ordinary classroom. A language laboratory is not a method of teaching foreign languages, but rather a technique which individualizes learning by enabling the learner to immediately hear the correct response on the tape and monitor his own performance. This electronic technique, like any other teaching technique, is only as effective as the teacher who uses it. There is a language laboratory coordinator who produces the software (or adapts commercially-made tapes), generally supervises the running of the laboratory and offers guidelines for curriculum, but it is

ultimately the responsibility of the teacher to select appropriate programs and conduct the lesson herself. It is essential that the teacher select programs which are suitable for her class and that she be knowledgeable about the programs and the best ways to utilize them.

The language laboratory lessons are all pre-recorded on reel tapes or cassettes, and each teacher orders the tape she wishes to use from a catalogue according to the needs of her class. The language laboratory programs expose the learner to a wide variety of voices and accents of native speakers and offer programs which the individual classroom teacher could not hope to duplicate. It is possible for students to work at their own pace if the programs are recorded in the individual booths before the lesson begins. The teacher also monitors the booths and listens to and guides the students at work. It is no easy task to monitor 40 students at work in the language laboratory, but teachers usually manage to listen in to each student at least once or twice during a session. English teachers are trained in the use of the language laboratory in a three-day course given by the Head of Department before they begin work in our school, but it usually takes a few months of experience to gain full confidence in using the equipment.

Every class from grade seven to grade twelve has a regularly scheduled hour for using the laboratory. We find the language laboratory most useful for grades seven through ten. In more advanced classes, where students have more or less mastered the structure of the language, the laboratory programs concentrate on improving listening comprehension and note-taking skills. Most of our software was purchased from the B.B.C., Longman's and other commercial firms and adapted for use with our students. The programs which our students find most enjoyable, however, are those which were produced especially for them by our staff. These programs include:

a) Dramatized readings of simplified readers and comprehension questions.
b) Pop songs with predicting activities in the form of Cloze exercises.
c) Programs to accompany NETA textbooks for weaker pupils.
d) English news programs and note-taking exercises.
e) Interviews with native speakers and filling in grids.
f) Simulation exercises (The students are "pilots" and are talked in by the "control tower". They must turn dials on their "control panels" according to directions received.)

We have also fifteen commercially-produced courses which we have adapted for use with our students and all of the listening comprehension Bagrut examination exercises which we recorded from the radio transmissions. All in all, we now have about 300 taped programs for use in the language laboratory and these tapes are constantly being added to and revised.

This year our school has installed a computer and computer terminals for the teaching of mathematics, reading comprehension and computer sciences. Not willing to be left behind, the English department is asking to obtain EFL programs as well. Programs for teaching English via computer are now being developed by the Institute for Educational Technology in Israel and one of our teachers is taking advantage of her sabbatical year to take part in that program. Two other English teachers will be taking computer literacy courses next year at the universities. Since the administration of our school is modern in outlook, we hope that English as well as mathematics and Hebrew will be included in the computer-assisted learning programs next year.

We have the advantage of being a large school with many facilities, but some of the ideas described here can be adapted for smaller schools. The important thing in any school is sensitivity to learners' needs and interests and a cooperative relationship among the teachers.

PRACTICE TEACHING IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

by *SHeila Schoenberg*, Teacher-Training Dept., Hebrew University

Teacher-training has undergone profound changes in recent years and controversy has questioned its every tenet; however, Practice Teaching still ranks high on any list of activities deemed desirable for the education of teachers.

In Israel the Adar committee has recommended an increase in the number of lessons that the student teacher will be required to give, and the Etzioni committee has similarly extended the range of required practice. But though the prestige of practice teaching has not waned, the concept of its nature and aims has changed — a change prompted by important theoretical and practical developments in the educational field.

The Concept of Practice Teaching

The term "practice teaching" implies the prior existence of a body of proven practical knowledge or behavioural skills, which the student either learns in theory and then sets out to apply in practice, or acquires by emulation and then perfects by habitual use. The fact that the practice-teaching phase usually comes at the end of the training period reinforces this notion of a predetermined manner which, once acquired, is later applied to certain well-defined situations.

There are several weak points in this conception of what student teachers do, or are expected to do, in their student teaching activities:

a. educational practice cannot be conceived as a direct application of theoretical or empirical statements (theory);

b. the envisaged image of the teacher is restrictive ;
c. theory and practice are not two distinct phases in the program but must be integrated in the course of study.

I would like to consider these points in order to gauge their educational import.

a. *The Role of Theory*

The "science of education", however rigorously conceived, can hardly predict what might happen, in the manner that the exact sciences can. It is therefore unreasonable to expect that solutions to practical problems may be read off — simply — from general theoretical statements, or that the acquisition of teaching skills can be dependent, in any complete way, on theory (in the sense of prescriptions, maxims or rules of thumb).

In the field of language teaching one can point for example to the fact that despite almost half a century of linguistic and psychological research (since Bloomfield), there is still no agreement as to how language is learnt or for that matter how it should best be taught. The constant change of paradigm within each foundation discipline, the difficulty of proving the superiority of one method of F.L.T. over another, the recent awareness of the endless number of variables that influence foreign language learning and the identification of numerous "special purposes" that might shape the language syllabi — all these render the "logic" of direct application highly questionable or in need of constant modification by the results of contextualized research. This does not mean, however, that the student teacher can safely disregard theory, but that theory in its role as provider of prescriptions and maxims can offer only limited help to the student in the first stages of his teaching experience. Yet theory fulfils an additional role in the education of teachers, that of providing multiple modes of viewing and analysing educational interaction and evaluating existing practices. In fact the question never really is whether practice can afford to ignore theoretical belief, but whether the theoretical beliefs which *any* practice presupposes are valid and warranted by our existing knowledge. Thus, for example, one might ask whether the recent communicative approach to F.L.T. offers a viable alternative to current approaches or, being merely an extrapolation of specific F.L. needs, offers only additional scope but does not call into question existing practices.

Unless the student teacher is trained to confront such issues and is able to appreciate the theoretical underpinnings of the methods he uses, he cannot exercise a fully professional judgement.

b. *The Envisaged Image of the Teacher*

It is naive to assume that a complex and far-ranging profession like teaching can be taught primarily by behaviouristic training and the handing out of recipes. In fact the very conception of the teacher as a technician, a performer in a pre-

determined manner, is both misleading and self-defeating. It is misleading because, in addition to the previously discussed considerations, it fails to give credit to the creative and spontaneous thought-processes that good teaching implies, and to the dynamic qualities of student-teacher interaction. It is also self-defeating because the deprecating image of the student as a learner and thinker will eventually mirror itself in a low-level type of learning and thinking in the classroom. In F.L.T. these qualities of snoptaneity and divergent thinking are of particular moment, because the formal nature of the subject matter lays few constraints on content choice, thereby accentuating the need for teacher resourcefulness, and because the recent stress on communication enhances the value of learner-centered strategies and context-dependent decision making.

c. *The Integration of Practice and Theory*

The above considerations as well as teacher-training experience have reinforced the conviction that theory which is assimilated away from the realities of the classroom is at best intellectually stimulating but instrumentally void, and practice-teaching which is divorced from theory (and conceived as apprenticeship, for example) is blind. The move towards the integration of theory and practice has characterized teacher education on all its levels.

In the teaching of the academic subjects a gradual reconstruction of subject-matter content has taken place, and the so called "scientific" perspective has given way to the more action-oriented perspective of teaching [1].

At the same time new types of quasi-practical or clinical contexts have emerged on campus, where the teaching act can be analysed and commented upon in the process of being exercised. Some of these are micro-teaching, peer-teaching, simulation, interaction and situation analysis. These contexts, backed by the development of technology, have many advantages to offer: they are more easily controlled, they make possible the isolation and grading of teaching components and render the teaching act available for exemplification and analysis. Though admittedly not enough is being made of these ante-field opportunities, partly for lack of adequate funding, it is important to note that the scope of these contexts is limited, and that their impact is dependent on the educational philosophy which guides their use. They draw upon and supplement school teaching, but they cannot replace it.

In sum, it is suggested here that the above considerations point to a reconstructed concept of student teaching in the school: a concept at once narrower and more inclusive than the one previously held. Narrower, because work in the school is conceived as but one context among others for promoting an active theoretical-

1. See D. Gordon: "Theory and the teaching perspective". J. of Philosophy of Education, v. 14. N. 1 1980.

practical study of teaching; and more inclusive because, by implication, it must include a theoretical analytic component and entails greater depth and variety of school participation.

Some Aims of Student-Teaching

Unlike the clinical contexts mentioned earlier, the classroom and school environment is characterized by simultaneity and unpredictability. To navigate in this complex environment the student-teacher must possess additional concepts and skills which cannot be fruitfully acquired in a workshop setting. Learning to classify and conduct different types of drills in a work-shop is one thing, but learning to sustain a flow of such drills in the class is quite another. Or, to give another example, a lengthy study of the symptoms of impaired intelligence in disadvantaged children and the tools of rehabilitation are not a sufficient provision for the ability to identify and treat these symptoms in class. In the classroom the teacher's behaviour is powerfully influenced and remolded by the demands of the setting. For the student-teacher to be able to react constructively to feedback he must be given concepts which reduce the strangeness of the environment and provided with teaching opportunities which will facilitate this delicate process of self-monitoring. As a learner, the student should be allowed to consider the classroom as a "sounding board" rather than as a "stage" [1] and to "submerge" and test his newly acquired notions and skills. Only when this period of submergence [2] is given its due and rationally dealt with in context [3], will the stage be set for a more flexible and goal-directed activity, and for further analysis and theorizing regarding it.

Taking into consideration the specific learning opportunities afforded exclusively by the school, as well as the special needs of the students — in this case university graduates, who are subject-matter specialists and often unacquainted with Israeli school culture —, a list of goals or objectives for student teaching may be compiled. Five such objectives are mentioned below, which are both consistent with the above view and illustrative of the three domains of student learning:

(a) cognitive learning (understanding teaching);
(b) skill or competence-oriented learning (learning how to act) and
(c) existential learning (learning to be and develop personally as a teacher) —

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1. This distinction will be dealt with in another context.
2. Some will even go so far as to describe the student teacher as being, during the initial stage of his practice, in a "state of shock" and therefore impervious to suggestions and counselling.
3. The "sounding board" approach does not necessarily imply "waste of valuable class time".

(a) — To guide the student-teacher's understanding of the organization of the school as a social system; in the case of English native-speakers also to acquaint them with the climate and culture of the Israeli school.

(b) — To develop in a more complex context (beyond the work-shop setting) the abilities and skills involved in planning teaching, creating interest, organizing materials to provide for different capacities and needs and testing student progress.

(b), (c) — To develop in a more authentic context the abilities to respond to feedback (rather than perform in a predetermined manner), to sense and capitalize on instructional opportunities and be flexibly goal directed.

(c) — To develop a feeling of self-confidence and a sense of security which will attend the student's entrance into his first teaching position.

No doubt some of these goals imply approaches and processes which may prove contradictory in either their "logic" or in practice. Unfortunately this seems to be unavoidable in a field where "conflicting logics" [1] coexist and where the radical educational approach does not seem to offer (to date) a viable alternative.

Types of School-Based Activities

Student activities within the schools must be continuously replanned. What is desirable must be reconciled with what is possible and available and the outcome tailored to the needs of the individual student teacher. Subject to these limitations, the school setting offers opportunities for three broad categories of activities:

(a) In the first place the school provides opportunities to observe teachers in action and do the job oneself. This constitutes the bulk of student-teachers' field training to date, and should be subject to continuous re-evaluation (i.e., the terminal block period of training, prevalent today, might be profitable replaced by 2–3 cycles of concentrated practice occurring at different stages of the course). The request to extend practice teaching should not however be construed as an appeal for more of the same. No doubt the aforementioned opportunities are necessary for acquiring many forms of professional competence and skill, but they are not sufficient unto themselves and must be supplemented by opportunities to attain additional goals.

(b) As previously argued, the opportunities to observe teachers and classes and work under supervision must be systematically used to develop the student's understanding of teaching. This requires both informed help, readily available from experienced teachers and tutors, and clinically-oriented programming. Observations and work in the school must be woven into theoretical work

1. See: Zvi Lam: "The Conflicting Logics of Teaching".

undertaken in the university and conditions provided for post-observation (or post-teaching) clinical discussions (i.e. staff release, space, video-tape facilities, flexible scheduling etc.). Secondly, various models of team endeavours should be devised (i.e. — student team teaching, class adoption programs, group work projects etc.). What characterizes these activities is their explorative nature, and the joint planning and shared assessment of results to which they are amenable.

(c) The school setting should also afford opportunities for the student-teacher to get personally involved in the work of the school, and experience the excitement and responsibility of a more direct and prolonged contact with pupils. University students make good paraprofessional workers even in their first year of study in the program, and they benefit from a graded in-service type of learning experience. On the other hand they have crowded schedules and are not always vocationally motivated. Planning which correlates their schedules and needs with those of the school can result in educational ventures which will benefit both parties concerned. Examples of such assignments would be: tutoring after school hours individual pupils or groups from a class in which the student is observing; team-teaching with the regular class teacher in heterogeneous classes; participation in trips and other extra-curricular activities; and possibly, holding during the second year a part-time teaching position with attached consultation facilities provided by a cooperative teacher or the tutor. The recent tightening of educational budgets may lend economic credibility to this idea of increased participation of student teachers in the work of the school.

The Role of the Co-operating Teacher

The co-operating teacher is a dominant figure in the field of experience of the student teacher, and his/her influence is often far-reaching. Unfortunately the rewards for the cooperating teachers are largely intrinsic. They are negligibly recompensed by the academic world and the government, and their main rewards are probably the pleasure of sharing insights with relatively motivated and well informed students and possibly the esteem of their colleagues and former trainees.

The role of the cooperating teacher is multi-faceted and highly demanding:

S/he serves as the student's guide and mentor in the school.

S/he provides feedback for the student.

S/he presents a model of teaching behaviour which the student can study and learn from, rather than adopt uncritically. Since the "watch me and do as I do" attitude will not suffice, especially in a field like F.L.T. where personality variables are so determinant , the cooperating teacher must be ready to make his or her

intentions explicit and to submit his or her strategical and tactical moves to analysis and appraisal.

S/he fulfils a consultant's role with regard to the student teacher. Both before and after the student's instructional activity s/he should interact with the student and supply suitable guidance.

S/he provides a personal point of view of the norms, hazards and rewards of a teaching career and furnishes examples of professional integrity. Willingness to share and explore ideas and experiences, candour regarding difficulties and omissions, are traits which students regard highly as facilitating and conducive to professional growth.

Obviously not all teachers can be expected to have the desire, the knowledge, the skills and the personal qualities appropriate for the training of student teachers, and those who do have these qualifications should be carefully nurtured. But even so, the cooperating teacher, working under the pressure of practical teaching issues and duties in a particular job, cannot be expected to be knowledgeable about the latest educational theories or have the global educational context in mind. Close coordination and a clear division of roles between tutor and co-operating teacher are therefore necessary to maintain a constructive partnership.

ERROR ANALYSIS OF FREE COMPOSITION: THE THEORY AND THE PRACTICE *

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1. Introduction

The underlying assumptions on which most published work on error analysis has been based were clearly — if somewhat simplistically — formulated in Halliday, McIntosh and Stevens (1964):

> Any error in English can be described with complete accuracy by reference solely to the description of English, without taking any account of the student's native language or even knowing what it is. Each error is stated as a specific deviation from a described English feature.

And presumably, therefore, if in the performance data of the learner each error is replaced by the appropriate English features, well-formed English sentences will result.

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* A fuller version of this article, with more examples analysed, was published in *Indian Journal of Applied Linguistics* IV/I, January 1978. Some copies are available on application to the author.

An essentially similar approach is spelt out in greater and more sophisticated detail by Pit Corder (1971) in his "algorithm for providing data for description of idiosyncratic dialects." The end-point of this process is "two sentences: the idiosyncratic sentence [produced by the learner] and a well-formed sentence, which by *definition* have the same meaning." And the analysis, both descriptive and explanatory, derives from a comparison of the learner's performance with the reconstructed sentence.

To be fair to Pit Corder, he does admit that the technique he describes is idealized. But the idealization occurs in the stages by which the reconstructed sentence is produced. For various reasons, reconstruction may not always be possible. But if it is, the analysis can go ahead. The algorithm has served its purpose. No further consideration of the reconstructed sentence is required. All writers on error analysis assume that with the reconstruction of a "well-formed" target language sentence, all necessary preliminaries to error analysis have been completed.

This is all very well in theory but in practice, especially with the analysis of written composition, there is much more to be said. After all, the written compositions of native speakers also have to be corrected ; their performance data — however "well-formed", from the second language error analyst's point of view — will fail to satisfy their first language composition teachers in any number of ways. The only writer on error analysis to show much awareness of this problem is H. V. George (1972:46): "It is sometimes claimed that native speakers have a "mastery" of the mother tongue at an early age. This is hardly a teacher's point of view." His main concern, however, is with the differences between standard and non-standard varieties of the language, not with the problem of coherent self-expression in writing discussed in this paper. If a student is not yet capable of writing clearly and coherently in his mother tongue, his performance in the second language will be doubly deficient. There will be "specific deviations" of the kind referred to by Halliday, McIntosh and Strevens and removed by Pit Corder in the process of reconstruction. And the reconstructed sentences will still need correction, of one kind or another, in ways familiar to all teachers of composition in the mother tongue: clumsiness, rhetorical inadequacy, ambiguity, logical confusion and so on. Furthermore, the interreaction of lack of proficiency in the second language with inability to write coherently in one's first language produce "interlanguage performance data" of an interest and complexity hitherto ignored by second language error analysts.

Let us try to demonstrate, by the analysis of a single composition, some aspects of this interreaction. There will be three stages to the demonstration. First, after presenting the composition, we shall try — with the aid of Pit Corder's algorithm — to arrive at a *plausible reconstruction*, a set of well-formed sentences that have the same meaning as the original essay. Then we shall examine this reconstruction

from the point of view of a teacher of English composition to native speakers of English. Or — another way of looking at the same problem — from the point of view of a journal editor who has been given this important contribution by a valued patron and told to tidy it up for publication. This tidying-up we call a *reformulation.* Finally, we shall discuss in detail some of the changes that take place as we move from *text* to *reconstruction* to *reformulation.* This discussion will take the form of a rough-and-ready typology ; no claim is made that the categories are mutually exclusive or in any way exhaustive. The degree of overlap between the categories is no doubt considerable. But some attempt at sorting out the phenomena seemed preferable to merely discussing the sentences as they occur in sequence.

First, then, the composition. (The sentences are numbered for convenience of reference in the analysis that follows.) It was written by a 17-year old Israeli eleventh-grade pupil after seven years of classroom instruction in English. He and his classmates were required, at short notice and without preparation or the use of dictionaries, to write on the subject "What can be done to reduce road accidents in Israel?"

2. The Essay

(1) Recently we heard about the road accidents and the news weren't good for us because (2) the number of casualties are growing up every year and the people who have liences ni Israel also are growing very quickly.
(3) Moreover the gap of knowledge about driving between drivers and pedestrians is big.
(4) Therefore we have to solve and to find solution for this difficult and great problem.
(5) I suggest that the people who learn driving must be twenty year old instead eighteen year old because (6) the youth aren't enough responsible about the life of the people.
(7) The testers don't devide many driving liecnces for everyone who learn driving because the majority of drivers is a danger for public security.
(8) Another way to limite the road accidents is to promote the level driving in Israel and to widen the roads and the streets in Israel.
(9) I also claim that the drivers aren't only guilties and (10) the pedistrians disturb every day to drivers. (11) Moreover the pedistrians caused majority road accidents. (12) Therefore our government has to widen the propagande about preventing accidents and to guide the people how to behave in road accidents.
(13) The government also has to establish special ministry government which prevent road accidents. (14) Another important point is parking place and (15) we know that the parking places in Israel are limited.

(16) Therefore we have to build more parkings and more roads because without parking places, the streets are encloseting many cars and trucks.
(17) At last judjes must punish hard bad drivers.

The reconstruction is not, in Pit Corder's sense, *authoritative*, since we were not able to question the writer about what he meant to say. It is, I hope, *plausible*. Hebrew, the mother-tongue of the learner, has been invoked in the interpretation of some of the more obscure portions of the text. All gross errors of spelling, grammar and vocabulary have been corrected. But not much more.

3. The Reconstruction

(1) Recently we heard about road accidents and the news wasn't good for us because (2) the number of casualties is growing every year and the people who have driving licences are also increasing very quickly.
(3)Moreover, the gap between drivers and pedestrians in their knowledge about driving is big.
(4) Therefore we have to solve and find a solution for this difficult and great problem.
(5) I suggest that people who learn to drive should be twenty years old instead of eighteen years old, because (6) young people are not responsible enough about people's lives.
(7) The testers do not allot many driving licences, to everyone who learns to drive, because the majority of drivers are a danger to public safety.
(8) Another way to limit the road accidents is to raise the level of driving in Israel and to widen the roads and the streets in Israel.
(9) I also claim that the drivers aren't the only guilty ones, and (10) pedestrians every day disturb drivers. (11) Moreover, the pedestrians have caused the majority of road accidents. (12) Therefore our government has to increase the publicity about preventing accidents and to guide people how to behave in road accidents.
(13) The government also has to establish a special government ministry which will prevent road accidents. (14) Another important point is parking space and
(15) we know that parking space in Israel is limited.
(16) Therefore we have to build more parking lots and more roads, because without parking space the streets are holding many cars and trucks.
(17) Finally, judges must punish bad drivers severely.

At this point the reader himself might like to try his hand at pulling this muddled collection of ideas into shape. The first requirement is to introduce a more coherent system of paragraphing. The writer probably has very little idea what constitutes a paragraph of expository prose in his mother tongue, and this lack of control of the conventions of formal writing carries over to his attempts

to write in his second language. But how many second language teachers can spare the time to teach their students the mechanics of formal composition?

At all events, if we rationalize the paragraphing, remove obscurity and ambiguity, iron out infelicities, and generally try to turn it into a reasonable essay without straying too far from the original intention, a possible *reformulation* might run as follows:

4. The Reformulation

(1) We have recently been hearing about road accidents, and it has not been good news; (2) the number of casualties is increasing year by year, and the number of people in Israel who have driving licences is also growing rapidly. (3) Moreover, the lack of knowledge about driving, among drivers and pedestrians alike, is great. (4) We must therefore find a solution for this very difficult problem.

(5) I suggest that the minimum age for obtaining a licence should be raised from eighteen to twenty; (6) young people do not have a sufficient sense of responsibility for other people's lives. (7) Testers do not grant driving licences to everyone who learns to drive, because the majority of drivers are a danger to public safety. (8) Other ways to reduce the number of road accidents in Israel include raising the level of driving and widening the streets.

(9) I also claim that not all the blame should be laid on the drivers; (10) pedestrians are a constant nuisance to drivers. (11) Moreover it is pedestrians who cause the majority of road accidents. (12) Our government must therefore broaden the scope of the publicity about preventing accidents, and guide people how to behave in order to avoid road accidents. (13) The government also has to establish a special government ministry which will prevent road accidents.

(14) Another important point is parking space. (15) It is well-known that parking space in Israel is inadequate. (16) We have to build more parking lots and more roads, because without parking space the streets become jammed with cars and trucks.

(17) Finally, judges should punish bad drivers severely.

5. Discussion

Obviously, this is not the only form the reconstruction could take. The ambiguities could be given alternative interpretations; the confusions could be resolved in other ways. But one way or another, almost every sentence of the reconstruction has required reformulation.

For clarity of presentation the sentences will be analysed in a sequence that yields a rough-and-ready typology, not in the sequence in which they occur. But the numbering refers to the order of the sentences in the original text. Features

of the reconstruction process, including comparison with Hebrew, the student's mother-tongue, will be discussed where relevant. Sentences from the text, the reconstruction and the reformulation are labelled T, RC and RF respectively.

1. *Adequacy*

There will be of course some sentences where the conventional techniques of reconstruction do produce an adequate target-language sentence that needs no *further comment, and can pass unchanged into the reformulation.*

17T: At last judges must punish hard bad drivers.
17RC/17RF: Finally, judges must/should punish bad drivers severely.

Even here I suspect a really pernickety composition teacher might question the phrasing. The law does not proscribe bad driving in general, but merely specifies which behaviours are infringements. Such quibbling apart, the reconstruction is fully acceptable.

The text sentence is somewhat ambiguous; it could be reconstructed "... should punish tough, bad drivers."

The decision to interpret "hard" as a misplaced and lexically inappropriate adverb is based on the knowledge of Hebrew, where the sequence VERB+ADVERB+DIRECT OBJECT is normal — see Selinker (1969) for a discussion of transfer phenomena of this kind among Hebrew-speakers learning English.

2. *Lexical inadequacy*

1T: ... and the news weren't good for us.
1RC: ... and the news was not good for us.

Control of a more extensive vocabulary would permit some such rephrasing as "and the news was distressing/disturbing". Lacking the precise word, the learner makes do with minimal, basic vocabulary and simplifies by means of paraphrase. The simplest reformulation removes the personal pronoun: 1RF "it has not been good news."

10T: ... and the pedistrians disturb every day to drivers.
10RC: ... and pedestrians disturb drivers every day.

The Hebrew verb lehafri'a, here translated "disturb", is more general in scope than its English translation-equivalents — one dictionary lists "disturb, hinder, bother". In such a context in a Hebrew composition it might well be criticised by a Hebrew teacher and replaced by the equivalent of "... pedestrians are a constant nuisance to drivers". It is important to distinguish this kind of inaccuracy from the usual transfer-induced lexical errors — in this composition "growing up" for "increasing", "parking place" for "parking space" — where the learner

has assumed an identity of semantic structure between first and second language (Ringbom 1978) and which do not imply any lack of vocabulary in the mother tongue.

3. *Syntactic blend*

7T: The testers don't devide many driving licences for everyone who learn driving.

7RC: The testers do not allot many driving licences to everyone who learns to drive.

But presumably what the writer is trying to say is a combination of two separate ideas: "... do not grant many driving licences" and "do not grant driving licences to everyone who ..." — see 7RF. Blending the two constructions has produced a looseness and ambiguity which would require correction in any language; native speakers also produce such syntactic blends.

4. *Conceptual confusion*

5T: I suggest that the people who learn driving must be twenty year old instead eighteen year old.

5RC: I suggest that people who learn to drive should be twenty years old instead of eighteen years old.

But is that writer really concerned about the age when people *learn* to drive? Surely what he has in mind here is the minimum age for obtaining a licence. What is wrong with *learning* to drive at eighteen, as long as you don't drive without supervision until you are twenty? So recast the same sentence:

5RF: I suggest that the minimum age for obtaining a licence should be raised from eighteen to twenty.

This may seem like a quibble, but it is the kind of quibble composition teachers in the mother tongue are quick to exploit... How else can you teach students to think and write clearly?

5. *Rhetorical deviance*

4T: Therefore we have to solve and to find solution for this difficult and great problem.

4RC: Therefore we have to solve and find a solution for this difficult and great problem.

Kaplan (1966) has described the different ways writers from different cultural backgrounds, with different traditions of rhetoric, structure their expository prose: the Russian preference for digression, the Arab tendency to proceed by contrast, and so on. His work was mainly concerned with units larger than the sentence, but similar tendencies can also be discerned at sentence level. There is a Hebrew rhetorical and poetic tradition as old as the Bible of emphasis by means of lexical

and grammatical parallelism: "Hear this all ye people; give ear all ye inhabitants of the world" (Psalms 49, 1). The vitality of this tradition explains the structure of 8T: note also the repetition at the end of the fifth paragraph: "to widen the roads and the streets in Israel". In English, by contrast, there is a conflicting preference for succintness, well exemplified by George Orwell's dictum: "If it is possible to cut a word out, always cut it out" (1961). Over and above the purely grammatical reconstruction that suffices for conventional error analysis one feels the need for further amendment of the rhetoric:

4RF: We must therefore solve this very difficult problem.

6. *Ambiguity*

3T: Moreover the gap of knowledge about driving between drivers and pedistrians is big.

3RC: Moreover, the gap between drivers and pedestrians in their knowledge about driving is big.

This is the minimum restructuring necessary to avoid the suggestion of reckless "driving between drivers and pedestrians". Grammatically, the sentence could even be left uncorrected if the ambiguity is considered too far-fetched. But further rewriting is needed if we wish to eliminate the rhetorically feeble conclusion ("... is big") — something like "there is a wide gap between drivers and pedestrians in their knowledge about driving".

Yet the sentence still leaves us uneasy; it does not make much sense in context. In fact, it arouses two suspicions that could only be confirmed by interviewing the writer: (i) "between" is used for "among" — one word serves both functions in Hebrew; (ii) the word "gap" is not correctly used — it should be "lack". If these suspicions are correct, then what the writer is trying to say is probably "Among both drivers and pedestrians there is a great lack of knowledge about driving" (see 3RF). This certainly makes more sense in the context. At all events, the sentence vividly illustrates the possible interrelation between lack of proficiency in the grammar and vocabulary of the second language and inability to structure a sentence properly in any language.

6. Implications

(i) *For classroom practice.* Consider the positive aspects of the level of language proficiency displayed by the writer of this composition. He uses the following words accurately: recently, casually, licence, problem, solution, responsible, majority, public, security, danger, limit, claim, pedestrian, prevent, behave, establish, ministry, government. Though his syntax is shaky, he makes no mistake in the structure of relative clauses, which are not easy for speakers of Semitic languages. Yet almost every sentence raises problems that mere "reconstruction"

is powerless to solve. And the difficulties arise from the creative nature of the cognitive task, not from the level of mechanical proficiency demanded.

The detailed analysis given seems to me to indicate that the ability to write expository prose is a highly complex skill, which should not be expected of adolescent second language learners. This sweeping statement should not be pushed too far. I am not suggesting that advanced learners should not be expected to write anything in the second language. But tasks should be highly functional and precisely defined: a letter of application for a specific job, a report of an experiment, a set of instructions for a particular project. The kind of assignment, in other words, that second-language learners may some day have to perform for *someone other than their class teacher.* But very few will ever have to write what amounts to a newspaper editorial in any language. And no student can be expected to accomplish more in his second language than in his first.

(ii) *For the study of interlanguage.* Probably only spoken performance at the most basic level of communication can provide "interlanguage performance data" unhampered by difficulties of self-expression. After all, even native speakers take university courses in speech training. Forceful coherent speech, especially on public occasions, is no man's birthright. Rhetoricians have been around to teach us how to do it since before Aristotle. Many of the features selected and categorised from this composition undoubtedly occur in learner's speech as well (Burt and Kiparsky 1972:1):

> Often a sentence heard in the classroom sounds very strange, but there is so much wrong with it that it is hard to pick out any single problem. Hopefully if a teacher has seen some goof in isolation, and has studied the relevant grammar, he is more apt to be able to pick it out of the garble.

The explanation of the "garble" must take into account conceptual confusion, ambiguity, syntactic blending and lexical inadequacy, in addition to deficient syntax.

(iii) *For composition marking.* Burt and Kiparsky, well aware how sentences are "riddled with goofs", suggest correcting important goofs in one colour and all the other goofs in black. It would be nice if we could add "and all further stylistic blemishes in green". Unfortunately, as we have shown, they are not so simply disentangled. Ideally, as we have tried to show, we should distinguish a first stage of *reconstruction,* aimed at removing "goofs", and a further stage of *reformulation,* aimed at improving the style and clarifying the thought. But what second-language teacher has time for such detailed treatment, much of which should be handled in the first language classroom?

(iv) *For error analysis.* The literature of error analysis, especially of the performance of advanced learners, is full of simplification and idealization. It is time

we took a closer look at what advanced students actually produce, especially in writing. And we must take into account more than just the grammatical rules of the two languages. In order to spot *rhetorical deviance*, for example, the analyst must not only know the student's mother tongue but be aware of his cultural tradition. This essay has been a tentative step in the direction that error analysis of written performance — and probably spoken performance also — in theory and in practice ought to take.

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TELEVISION AND THE ENGLISH TEACHER: NOTES FROM THE CLASSROOM

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What makes a television program "work"? What exactly can we high school teachers expect a TV series to teach? What should we *not* rely on TV to do? Is there any particular kind of teaching that is uniquely the province of the (human) teacher, on which TV cannot encroach? And is the reverse true — can the television supersede the real-life teacher at times? The possibilities of TV are vast, and with some ingenuity can no doubt be adapted to almost any classroom needs. But without trying to answer the existential questions about the nature of TV, we can assume for it certain clear advantages over other media in the classroom; included in those other media is an exclusive reliance on a human teacher.

Television is, for example, made to order for language teaching, which was certainly duller and drier — though not necessarily less effective — before audio-visual options were as available to teachers as they are today. Especially in our curriculum here in Israel, which emphasizes the speaking and comprehension skills, the immediate picture-sound reinforcement that TV offers is irreplacable. Even the intensive use of sound equipment, in the form of tape recordings or records, does not provide the same impact as television can, with its immediate incorporation of the visual medium as well. My own experience bears this out. The proof is in the pupils' far better retention, even after two or three years' time, of certain language skills they learned using the "box".

Gerald S. Lesser, in his history of the American children's series *Sesame Street*, outlines several requisite elements of successful television production for youngsters; these elements apply to programs aimed at high school students as much as to those for pre-schoolers. To catch children's attention, he explains, his staff found that music, sound effects and repetition were all valuable aids. Directing their attention was then accomplished by surprise and "incongruity", by the use of animation, and by making the programs active.

Finally, to *sustain* attention, they relied heavily on humor, on the audience's anticipation of what was to come next, and on diversification of program elements.[1] Most of these components are self-explanatory, and it is easy to see that the successful telecasts in our own ninth-grade series here on Israeli Instructional Television use them in varying combinations. Where the combination is right, the program "works".

"English by Television, Stage 5" (Grade 9)

How this happens can best be seen if we examine briefly the program that is offered to ninth-graders and their teachers here, before taking a more detailed look at the individual teacher's situation. In the ninth-grade Instructional Television program structure, the basic premise is the weekly presentation of a telecast which corresponds both to a unit in the television textbook ("English by Television, Stage 5", a project of the Instructional Television Center) and to a unit in the language textbook ("English for Speakers of Hebrew", 11 and 12). Each telecast presents a specific language skill — under the heading of what was usually and unoriginally referred to as "grammar" — and builds it into a situation that is close enough to pupils' concerns and interests to make them forget about "grammar" for at least 30 minutes and simply join in the fun. The more or less Israeli-pupil-oriented program ideas use vocabulary which is reinforced, both in

1. Gerald S. Lesser, *Children and Television: Lessons from Sesame Street*, Random House, New York, 1974, pp. 102-125.

the TV textbook, and in the corresponding ESH unit. A studio teacher usually drills the language unit for the particular program, and there is often the opportunity for pupils in the class to participate by "answering" questions or "repeating" the studio teacher's words or even singing along a previously prepared song. The series works on general reinforcement of different language elements through situations that interest the youngsters. In my own experience, most of these programs "work", though obviously some reach the pupils more successfully than others. One series which seems to appeal to classes year after year is a three-part serial called "Lights Out". This one holds pupils' (and teacher's) attention from one week to the next through the use of suspense in classic "whodunit" style; another is "The Sheriff of Hollywood Hills", also a three-part continuing story that laughs at Hollywood, at Western heroes, and at itself.

To explore the possibilities of television in the ninth-grade classroom, our situation in Israel is ideal. In my school (the Rubin Academy of Music High School) the ninth-graders come together from all over Jerusalem, as the Rubin Academy is not a district school; there they embark on the high school phase of their lives, with all the social and academic changes that implies for them. They are enthusiastic, generally, about learning English, and open to innovation and novelty as their older, Bagrut-pressured counterparts are not. So televised instruction, even for those pupils who have not had it in their primary grades, is easily accepted as part of the general novelty of high school. This is, of course, not to mention the obviously welcome change half an hour of television affords in the middle of a prosaic school day.

Another advantage of the Israeli situation is the general suitability of the programming and the ease with which it can be fitted to the required curriculum. In fact, the TV program is designed to "match up" with the language textbook, unit by unit and telecast by telecast. Accompanying literature is readily available to the teacher, if the mail does its share — of dates, times and contents of each program. I can thus plan our weekly TV-watching sessions in advance, can coordinate them with the material to be taught in conjunction, and can do all this secure in the approval of the Ministry of Education. Here this may seem to go without saying, but there are many instances in the U.S., for example, where local teachers must contend with national or regional programming, so that the television material does not always coordinate with study requirements. (This is confirmed by Wanda B. Mitchell in an article entitled "Television in the Secondary School" as being a leading reason for many teachers not to use television when it is offered;[2] when I taught in a rural German school, I encountered

2. In Richard C. Burke, ed., *Instructional Television*, Indnana University Press, Bloomington, 1971, p. 25.

similar difficulties in the use of media in general.) In my school at least, class scheduling is also done with an eye to accommodating the television lessons.

How does all this look in real life? In my ninth grade, we watch one program a week, except in cases where the same telecast is presented two or three weeks in a row, something for which my advance material prepares me. In such a case, our progress in working on units in ESH 11 or 12 dictates when we watch. It is essential that each program be given two kinds of groundwork. First, the specific grammar must be introduced, and second, the telecast itself must be prepared for by introducing its topic and vocabulary. Once the preparatory work is done, we proceed by reinforcing the telecast's vocabulary and grammar through the accompanying TV textbook, which provides lexical and comprehension exercises, and often through the use of my own auxiliary material as well. This can take the form of exercises on stenciled work sheets, or special drills, or aural aids such as tapes.

Here is an example of how this translates into classroom work. The television unit, "Adverbs and Jazz", is made to order for our ninth-graders, coming as it does less than one month after they have entered our school and begun their musical studies. In it, they learn the names of musical instruments, names and characteristics of various musical styles, something about musical concepts such as harmony, variation and rhythm, and some facts about modern composers and musicians. The lexical items and concepts can be reinforced by using written exercises and oral drills based on those given in the pupils' text; the musical information can be taught by means of recordings or even by using the piano in the classroom (for the piano I enlist a pupil's help). Pupils can be assigned to research topics that appear, such as Gershwin or Ragtime, or related ones that surface in our class discussions. While all this is going on, the concept of adverbs is being painlessly introduced and the adverbs themselves drilled in a way so that their use blends in with the musical material.

There are other telecasts that work just as well in different ways. Each one offers different potential to the teacher and class willing to use it creatively to suit their special needs.

There have been decades of talk about how harmful television is to society, inciting us to violence and interfering with human interaction. Against all this, however, was the potential that the apparent natural addiction of children to television would be turned to constructive educational use...[3]

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3. Lesser, p. 7.

LEARNING AND RE-LEARNING TO READ

by *Yaffa Allony-Feinberg*, Kiriat Haim Comprehensive School

Throughout the school-years, almost every subject is taught and retaught in set cycles. Rarely does a pupil learn any subject once only; usually a subject is taught at different levels of difficulty, such as Bible, history, literature, natural science etc. However, it would seem that teaching the technique of reading is a one-time task, taught in the Primary classes only. The assumption seems to be that a pupil reads continually and so there is no need to teach it again. Perhaps this is right concerning reading in the mother-tongue, but it must be realized that learning a foreign language is quite different and must be approached accordingly.

We all know full well that learning how to read English is difficult for Israeli pupils, who are used to reading from right to left. The presence of vowel letters is another source of difficulty, and in addition the English writing system is not phonetic really to the same extent that some other languages are. Forming the sound-symbol correspondence correctly is not an easy task, even for the consonants; for example, the consonant letter may be written and not pronounced ("doubt", "knife", "write", etc.). The letter "c" is pronounced differently in different positions — although it does follow certain rules, which are unfortunately not really taught and are ignored even by most teachers. This is perhaps one of the reasons why teachers in the first year of teaching English read every passage in the class, in order to prevent pupils making mistakes while reading. As a result, the pupils do not bother to form any letter-sound correspondence at all, but try to memorize what they see and hear. It is almost like learning pictographs instead of learning the technique of hanging a symbol into a sound. Moreover, whenever a pupil is asked to read a passage aloud in class, he/she is helped by the teacher or classmates if he or she has the slightest difficulty in uttering the correct sound. The teacher does not wait and let the pupil struggle with the difficulties of reading, even when no difficulty is expected. Pupils quite often read words according to the first letter they identify, which may be far removed from the actual word. because the class gets impatient and the teacher does not want to lose the interest of the pupils in the contents of the passage. Teachers sometimes "help" their pupils along without even trying to find a rationale for what they are doing; and the result is that the proper techniques of reading are never really mastered.

One should not take refuge in the thought that what is mostly needed in life is not reading aloud but silent reading. Even silent reading contains elements of reading aloud; the contents are comprehended according to what the word sounds like. In addition, there are many people who understand English speech but do not understand what they see in print because of that lack of the ability to read correctly and quickly in their minds, without uttering sounds.

Re-Teach Reading in the Upper Grades

The techniques of reading must be retaught in an upper Crade — Grades 8 or 9 — and once again at an even higher grade, especially for acquiring the ability to read quickly longer words, mainly those originating from French and Latin. Actually, these should cause little difficulty if the reader has mastered the rules of letter-sound correspondence. These long words are usually read as spelled, therefore they cause very little trouble. However, words consisting of many letters frighten most readers, who do not even try to read them but instead guess them according to their first letters. In this way, comprehension is severely hampered and the incorrect comprehension of one single word may distort the meaning of a whole passage.

Not only reading and comprehension suffer from the inability to form proper sound-letter co-ordination. Even the ability to use a dictionary properly depends on the proper mastery of letter recognition. When I observe pupils using dictionaries, I can see the difficulty they have in locating the word they wish to find. They move back and forth from the text to the dictionary several times, because they find it difficult to keep in their minds a given number of letters which have no meaningful sound or even no sound at all. They have never learnt to rely on the sound of a given cluster of letters, which could help them greatly in remembering the spelling of a word, at least for a short time. In addition, they quite often make mistakes in locating the correct word and "select" instead one which happens to be in the proximity of the word they are supposed to be looking for.

Sound-Letter Correspondences To Improve Spelling

Sound-letter correspondences are particularly important for acquiring correct spelling. Especially in the upper classes, where longer words quite often occur, correct correspondence will greatly improve spelling. New readers are often frightened by long words and their eyes seem to stop functioning — so they are afraid of writing such words. On the contrary, such pupils should be made aware that these long words are pronounced and spelled phonically. The transcription of foreign names and words is another field which will gain greatly from these sound-letter correspondences. In the Bagrut examination one can easily detect the lack of this seemingly elementary knowledge when the examinees who write compositions try to mention the name of a place or person. It is sometimes even hard to guess what the writer intended to write: some examples from the 1983 Bagrut tests are — "Shfamr" (Shfar-Amer), "Vitcin", 'Geriech" ("Jericho"). Some Bagrut examinees do not know the simple rules for the pronunciation of "c" as /k/ or as /s/, so they write "convercation", "mancind", "romantice", "offic" and "policman". The same concerns the letter "g", in which case ele-

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mentary knowledge of spelling rules might have prevented mistakes like "Gorg" (George) or "strang" (strange).

In my view, it is imperative to try and teach learners again the techniques of reading which will help them to acquire proper sound-spelling correspondences. It will certainly be of great help in every field — reading, comprehension, speech and of course spelling. However, this repetition cycle of learning the techniques of reading must be carried out properly. Pupils should not be told simply that they will be taught to read. Instead, they might be told that they will be taught the formal rules of the transcription of Hebrew words into English as decided upon by the Academy and as used in formal documents. Pupils may be asked to transcribe the names of their classmates, the names of places in their vicinity, even a page from the telephone directory. After all, knowing how to read or write a name is very important and useful in life. Moreover, in this case they may be asked to use block capitals, as one is asked to do whenever filling in any document. This may even improve the handwriting of our pupils.

In learning spelling, pupils should not only be taught to depend on memorization, but should be aided by their hearing as well. If they have acquired a proper sound-letter coordination, then hearing the word, even in their minds, will help them to spell words which are not phonic in character, as certain parts of these words are sure to be phonic. At the same time, teachers must warn pupils against blindly relying on phonic rules for English.

THE UTILITY OF ORAL READING IN TEACHING EFL

by *Donald Knapp*, Temple University, U.S.A.

(reprinted from TESOL NEWSLETTER)

Should we use Oral Reading to teach "reading" to our EFL students? It is an interesting question to consider, since oral reading is an area in which the recommendations of specialists (in reading, psychology and TEFL) clash with the wide consensus of teaching practice.

Most teachers in early or intermediate level EFL classes use oral reading, students reading out loud to the teacher or other students, as a major technique for teaching reading. Almost all primary grade teachers use oral reading in their EFL classes to teach reading. But most specialists oppose oral reading as a practice to teach reading in elementary school or in beginning and intermediate levels of EFL. They approve of the teacher reading aloud and the students following along in their books, but they feel it is a bad teaching practice to have students read aloud to the class, bad for them to read aloud at all, except in a few special situations.

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There are many reasons why teachers use oral reading, some good, some not so good ;

(1) It gives the student an opportunity to have immediate feedback from the teacher.
(2) It involves everyone in the same activity (perhaps more useful for those moments when everything is going to pieces).
(3) It supplies the teacher with an identifiable role, how s/he can be helpful ; it gives a basis for praise or criticism.
(4) It can give the student a basis for a feeling of confidence, offering the shy, reticent student a task that can be performed with self-assurance.
(5)It allows the student to "show off" his accomplishments, encouraging practice at home, even though it may be a false sense of reading ability.
(6) It can be used as a diagnostic test, a basis for error (misuse) analysis, and inferentially used to evaluate comprehension.
(7) It is a way to "share" the printed content (disseminate information, enjoy the essence of a passage, appreciate a play, a dialogue, or a poem, to "tell" a story to children or someone otherwise unable to read to himself).
(8) And, admittedly, teachers do use oral reading on occasion to "impress visitors" and "because everyone else does it", and because, in most instances, students expect it and enjoy it.

What is Reading ?

But what students think reading is and what teachers think reading is are not necessarily the same. Word-calling is *not* reading. *Reading is a meaning-gathering activity.* Sophisticated readers do not read every word, but they comprehend the meaning of the passage. Three processes are involved in reading ; (1) making a correspondence between symbol and sound, (2) getting meaning from the context, and (3) getting meaning from the sentence structure.

In oral reading, every word must be read. In oral reading, information, pitch, stress, juncture, and expression are important. At worst, the oral reader must look at each letter and sound out the word. The oral reader often becomes so preoccupied with and frustrated by these mechanics that the meaning of the passage is lost. The reading deteriorates to word-calling and the reading rate grinds to a halt ... not to mention the boredom and suffering of classmates who must follow along.

In proficient silent reading, written symbols are put directly into meaning. Only absolute beginners decode written symbols to oral symbols and then, only when necessary for special purposes, to meaning. Good readers should decode written symbols to meaning and then to oral symbols. The essence of the reading process

is deriving meaning from *written* language, not from the oral counterpart of the written language.

Making Predictions

The reader is directly involved in making predictions while reading. S/he makes guesses that may, or may not, be confirmed. For example, "The cowboy got down from his horse and led his ————." What comes next? Did he lead his 'horse to the barn'? That is the answer that one might have predicted. But the sentence actually reads "The cowboy got down from his horse and led his girlfriend to the bar", the unconfirmed guess would cause the reader to do a 'double-take', to go back a few words. Good readers do regress in silent reading as they make large-scale guesses, based on context: lexical, syntactical, informational. However, good readers regress less and correct better than poor readers. In the special circumstances of a student reading to a teacher trained in miscue analysis, a student's "mistakes" and his/her very awareness that he needs to make correction are important in helping him improve his reading skills. Ordinary teacher correction doesn't help the student learn the reading process; it just pushes the student along. The self-correcting of miscues is associated with superior readers. Silent reading gives practice in making guesses and in self-correction when necessary.

Decoding and Performance

True reading is actually silent reading. Oral reading is a school exercise that emphasizes word calling to the detriment of meaning. Students say just what is on the page rather than what the passage means. Oral reading emphasizes the application of the mechanical aspects of reading and is, therefore, *not* a good teaching practice, generally speaking. Reading experts accept the fact that at the very early decoding stage, the transference of oral skills to visual symbol, oral reading is a good check of the process. They agree that on an *individual* basis, (the student reading alone with the teacher), oral reading may be used for diagnosis (miscue analysis) and they suggest that *oral reading otherwise is best reserved for performance*. It is hard to think of a reason, other than performance, that a person would have to read aloud.

There is no reason to ignore performance, especially when students enjoy it. But it requires special skills, "story telling", acting, or declamatory skills, if you will. And it is best done with a great deal of practice, repeatedly reading the same piece. Often the pronunciation, since it is symbol-oriented, is different from normal conversational pronunciation.

Reading Skills

But the skills one wants a student to acquire in 'reading' are silent skills; skimming, reading for information, reading to understand, reading that requires the ability to take large chunks (rather than individual words) and process them internally. Reading is a process that allows for regressions and hypothesizing.

Oral reading is not a skill that is often used by students outside the classroom. Oral reading in the classroom may be a conventional practice and may even be enjoyable to the students for a variety of reasons including the students occasional pleasure in performing. But the teacher must be cautioned that oral reading is not usually a useful goal in the EFL class and may actually be harmful to the development of good reading habits. Students and teachers should not equate students' ability to read orally with the real objectives of reading instruction: reading efficiently for understanding and meaning.

DEVELOPING INDEPENDENT READING COMPREHENSION

by *Rivka Kressel*, Ministry of Education

Reading articles and stories in a foreign language is a task that many students shun and fear. The longer and more complicated the text, the greater their apprehension — an apprehension that causes yet greater inhibition because it tends to interfere with the students' reasoning power, as well as adding to their negative motivation.

If students are to acquire competence and confidence in tackling reading material, and to develop comprehension skills in an orderly way, training toward these goals must begin in the earliest stages of their foreign-language study.

Finocchiaro (1969)[1] mentions five stages of development in training for reading comprehension:

1. The students learn to read texts they know from their oral work.
2. The students are presented with texts composed of words and structures they have learned, recombined into stories and other kinds of reading passages.
3. At the next stage, pupils are assumed to be able to read on their own passages that contain some unfamiliar language material.
4. After becoming accustomed to reading and comprehending the kind of materials mentioned so far, the students should be given simplified versions

1. Mary Finocchiaro, *Teaching English as a Second Language* (New York: Harper and Row, 1969).

of authentic reading texts. The fact that the contents of such materials are known to the readers is seen as a motivating factor, since it makes comprehension easier.

5. Later on, students should, to a great extent, decide themselves what they want to read and should make use of the great amount of reading material available.

All this sounds relatively simple, but there must be a catch somewhere; otherwise, there would not be so many students who do their best to avoid reading unfamiliar texts in the foreign language.

A number of devices are used by textbook writers to further students' ability to comprehend reading material:

1. Exercises that ask about the "leading characters" — so-called *who* questions.
2. Exercises that ask about the *when* and *where* of the action.
3. Exercises that direct the reader toward sentences containing particular lexical items.
4. Exercises that demand true/false responses.

It occurred to me that some of the students' fear of grappling with "unseen" texts might be avoided if the unknown could be made more familiar without actually giving away the content of the story and thus decreasing motivation.

I decided to use content questions — usually used to test comprehension after a story has been read — as motivators: the students were asked to study these questions before tackling the "unseen" piece of reading.

This kind of approach seems particularly justified, since much of the material the students read is followed by questions that lead the reader toward a particular approach to the material.

If students are trained to look at the questions as possible content clues, they soon discover that the questions reveal a great many facts about the material. In like manner, students should be trained to anticipate the contents of a story or passage from its title.

To illustrate the procedure and its possible outcome, I present two reading passages written for foreign-language lessons. The first is taken from the booklet *Funny Stories*, by H. I. Hill. [2]

The students are presented with the following items:

a. The name of the passage: *A Funny Story*

b. Seven lead and follow-up questions:

1. Where did the two travelers stay in the city?
2. How do people ascend to the thirty-ninth floor of a building?
3. Why did the two travelers not use the lift when they returned to the hotel at night?

4. Why did the men leave their heavy coats in the hall on the first floor of the hotel?
5. Why did they decide to sing and tell stories as they climbed to the thirty-ninth floor?
6. What did they remember when they had reached the thirty-eighth floor?
7. Why is this called a "funny story"?

"Discovering" a story with the help of the analysis of content questions

First, the title of the story is examined for "content clues". What does it tell us? The story we are reading right now does not have a title that "gives away" its contents, but we can see that the writer thinks the story is going to make the readers laugh.

Next, we scan the questions. Are there any we do not understand? After having verified that every student understands the questions, we start trying to guess what the story might be about. It seems that it tells about two friends and an incident that happened to them while staying in the city. All this we learn from reading the questions before we read the story, and without trying to surmise what the answers might be.

Stage three finds us examining the questions one by one, trying to guess what the answer might be:

1. Where do people stay when they are away from home? Question 4 tells us that the travelers stayed in a hotel.
2. Question 2 can be answered with the help of question 3.
3. We find no hint as to the answer to question 3.
4. The answer to question 4 is not found by looking at the other questions, but we might think of reasons for the men's behavior.

In a similar way, we try to think of reasons for the two men's behavior as it is described in the following questions. Students might suggest that the men had a long climb and were trying to amuse each other or to cheer each other up.

Trying to guess what they had forgotten in their coats, one of the students might suggest the key to their room. This suggestion is duly noted, along with other suggestions. *The teacher refrains from accepting or refusing any of the suggestions made.*

After discussing hints, clues, and possibilities, students and teacher open the book. Returning to question 1, the students are asked to look for the answer in the text. At this time the story is no longer conceived as "unseen".

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2. H. I. Hill, "Funny Stories", in *Oxford Graded Readers, Senior Level*, Vol. I, ed. by H. I. Hill (London: Oxford University Press, 1972), pp. 8–9.

This approach will help build up the students' motivation toward reading some of the many amusing simplified materials that are available. As an illustration, I am going to discuss the approach to a story taken from a collection entitled *Modern Short Stories by American Authors.* This little volume contains seventeen short stories, each comprising no more than two-and-a-half to three pages of print. The sentences are short and simply structured. Words and expressions that might have to be explained appear in exercise form at the end of each of the stories.

Since our objective is the furthering of "unseen" reading, we can refrain from stressing those exercises, dealing with expressions only if they constitute "key-words".

The story in question is "The Wrong House", by J. N. Young, pp. 79–83 in the book mentioned.[3]

The story is introduced with the help of the following questions, which are dealt with *before* reading the passage.

1. What were Hasty and Blackie doing near the dark house at night?
2. Why did they think themselves lucky when they found the house empty?
3. What seemed to indicate that the family who lived there had gone on a long vacation?
4. Why did they have to abandon the car?
5. Where did they hide the suitcase with the money?
6. What did the two men discover when they wanted to return to the house?
7. Who did Hasty claim to be when he telephoned the owner of the house?
8. Why is the story called "The Wrong House"?

a. Check whether the students understand the questions.

The words *indicate, long, abandon, suitcase,* and *discover* might be unfamiliar, but we should find out, with the help of the students, whether *not knowing* these items would prevent a reader from understanding the question or the story. Looking at question 3, in some cases we would "get the message" even if we didn't understand the word. Since we wish to train our students in the art of intelligent guessing, we would invite them to surmise what the meaning of the word appearing in its given context might be. The students are likely to come up with suggestions that are quite close to the real meaning.

It is important to train our students in the art of guessing intelligently, and to make them aware that while reading for general comprehension the reader should refrain from wanting to "translate", and should try instead to get the meaning of what is being presented.

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3. J. N. Young, "The Wrong House", in *Modern Short Stories by American Authors,* ed. by R. J. Dixon (New York: Regents, 1950), pp. 79–83.

b. An examination of the title of the story shows that a house seems to play an important part in the story and that something is "wrong" with that house.

c. A study of the questions discloses that the house is mentioned in questions 1, 2, 3, 6, and 7: Two persons, the only ones mentioned by name in the questions, are near the house at night (1). The house is empty (2), and there are signs that the inhabitants are away on vacation (3). In question (6), we discover that the men left the house again but wish to return. They speak to the owner of the house, pretending to be what they are not (7). Questions 4 and 5 reveal that the men abandoned a car and hid a suitcase filled with money. All these facts are available to whoever bothers to read the questions, without even trying to guess what the answers might be.

d. We try to compose a story, using only such clues as we have been able to gather from the questions. Two men are near a dark house at night. We understand that they entered the uninhabited house and are pleased to find that the owners are away on vacation. We know that these men abandoned their car and have a suitcase full of money, which they hide somewhere.

The students will, by now, voice opinions about the nature of Hasty's and Blackie's profession. The students do not know what the two men discovered, nor what they told the owner of the "wrong" house, but at this stage they are usually eager to find out, and they are ready to do so by reading the now "familiar" story. (synopsis of the story is given below.)

As students begin to lose their fear of unfamiliar reading material, the teacher can gradually reduce the content clues carried by the questions.

Later, students should be trained to make up questions of their own, aimed at discovering the main characters and/or ideas in a passage to be read.

Synopsis of "The Wrong House" by J. N. Young

Hasty and Blacky succeeded in stealing a large sum of money, but while trying to get away with the money they had the bad luck of running over a policeman. They tried to flee, but had to leave their car after its gasoline tank had been hit by a bullet.

The two robbers knew very little about the town they were in, and decided to hide the money in an uninhabited house till they could buy another car. The house they broke into looked as if its owners were on a lengthy vacation. They hid the suitcase with the money in the coal-cellar and left the house at dawn, to buy the car.

When the two returned to the house, they discovered that the inhabitants had returned. Hasty decided to telephone the owner of the house and tell him that

the police believed stolen money was hidden in his house. Two plainclothesmen would come and look for the money.

The owner of the house permitted the pair to "find" the money, but, when they wanted to leave, policemen appeared and arrested the two. The "wrong house" belonged to the local Chief of Police.

WRITTEN ANSWERS IN HEBREW TO ENGLISH COMPREHENSION QUESTIONS — SOME ADVANTAGES

by *Batia Laufer*, Haifa University

A. Many EFL teachers would probably agree that one of their most tedious, time-consuming and often frustrating tasks is marking pieces of students' free writing, whether in the form of a composition or the longer answers to comprehension questions. This is so not only because of the number of recurring errors that have to be underlined and corrected, but also because it is sometimes difficult for the teacher to determine, on the basis of the written answer before him, whether the student who wrote it actually understood the relevant passage, how much of it he understood and whether he properly understood what he himself had written in his answer. Consequently, in an examination situation, it might be hard to evaluate such an answer.

Students, on the other hand, often feel frustrated when required to produce longer pieces of writing. They report that even though they understood the text and had all the necessary information for the answer, they could not demonstrate their comprehension due to their difficulty in expressing themselves in English.

It is not my intention to argue against the value of writing in English as such. Obviously, the skill of writing is an important part of any foreign language curriculum. The question is whether writing in English is also an appropriate means for testing reading comprehension. It just might be that by requiring written answers in English, teachers occasionally deny themselves some valuable information about their students' (mis)comprehension, and that written answers in Hebrew would be a more effective indicator of what has actually been understood in a particular text and what specific language problems have interfered with comprehension.

B. This paper will discuss three problematic conditions for evaluation which result from writing the answers in English ; it will also suggest, as an alternative, writing in Hebrew to avoid problems caused by written answers in English. [1] These problematic conditions arise when :

I. pieces of text are copied from the text (partially or completely)
II. answers are written in poor language
III. answers are incomplete in information.

I. Text Copying

1. The following comprehension question was asked in a quiz given to first-year university students (non-English majors) taking an EFL reading comprehension course: "Is the husband able to change the effect housework has on the housewife? Explain." The students had the relevant text in front of them. It was an extract from "The Future of Marriage" by J. Bernards. Four students located the place of the correct answer and copied it: "Sympathetic encouragement instead of indifference or positive belittling from husbands would doubtless lessen the alienating effect of housework as an occupation on the marriage, but in and of itself could not overcome it, for the sympathy would be, in effect, patronizing".

As a check, the students were asked to answer the same question in Hebrew (after having submitted their copied answer above).

The results were the following:

Student 1:

הבעל משפיע על הרגשת האשה כעקרת בית בכך שהוא משים עצמו או החברה שמה אותו ברמה גבוהה יותר ובעמדה גבוהה יותר מאשתו.
האשה נעשית משעממת לבעל.

Student 2

עקרת הבית זקוקה לביקורת מצד הבעל. כאשר היא עושה משהו טוב או נעים עליו להחמיא לה מפני שזהו השכר היחידי שהיא יכולה לקבל על עבודתה. אם הבעל אינו מתחשב ואינו נותן לעקרת הבית להרגיש לפעמים כמישהו שעושה דברים חשובים ונחוצים לא פחות ממנו ההשפעה תהיה שלילית וכל זאת מפני שעבודתה היא אפורה, בזויה וללא שכר. לבעל אסור להשאר אדיש לעבודת הבית של האישה.

Student 3

שורה 55 — סימפטיה ואומץ לב במקום אדישות ויחס אדיש מהבעל בלא ספק ישפיעו על עבודות הבית במשך הנשואים.

Student 4

הבעל יכול להקל על האשה על ידי שיתוף עצמו בעבודות בית והתחלקות עם האשה בנטל העבודה.

The four answers in Hebrew clearly show that none of the students understood the relevant passage in English which they had copied earlier. In his Hebrew answer, student 1 wrote down irrelevant information from a different part of the

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1. It will not, however, discuss the advantages of writing in Hebrew over the multiple choice questions, or cloze tests, as the data presented here reflects the problems involved in students' writing in English and not the problems which result from MC and cloze tests.

text which he probably understood. The answer of student three reveals an unfortunate attempt to translate the beginning of the relevant passage (thus 'sympathy' becomes 'סימפטיה' and 'encouragement' becomes 'אומץ לב' — courage), but not the rest of the passage. The answers of student 2 and 4 bear no relationship to the text whatsoever. Students simply gave their own opinions, hoping, presumably, to get partial credit for writing something.

Thus, in all four cases, the actual misunderstanding of the passage was disguised by the copied answer in English. Once the students were given a seemingly simpler task — to answer in their mother tongue, they had to reveal what they (mis)understood.

2. While complete copying of an answer might indicate the student's conscious attempt to conceal his misunderstanding, partial copying of a sentence or a phrase might point to a different problem. The following phrases and sentences were copied by students in their answers from the text. (The answers comprised students' own words as well). When asked to translate the copied pieces, the following mistranslations were obtained:

The copied phrase/sentence	*Student's translation* [2]
a. she embraced him	היא הביכה אותו
b. a faithful woman	אישה גורלית
c. they do disinterested research	הם עושים מחקר חסר ענין
d. a comprehensive peace settlement	הסדר שלום שניתן להבנה
e. an inherent property	רכוש שעבר בירושה
f. they found (מייסדים) religions great or small	הם מצאו דתות גדולות או קטנות
g. an abuse gets put right	שחיתות נעשית לדבר נכון
i. he's likely to do it	הוא עשה זאת בחיבה.

The problem revealed by the translations above is not an attempt on the part of the student to fool the teacher by concealing his misunderstanding. It is rather the student's own unawareness of his misunderstanding of the copied phrases or sentences. If the students were only to write their answers in Hebrew, their various miscomprehensions would be made known to the teacher, corrected and probably eradicated later. But there is little reason to suspect a problem behind a copied and ostensibly well-used expression in English.

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2. A detailed error analysis is beyond the scope of this paper. However, it seems that most of the misinterpretations in the examples above are due to lexical difficulties. In examples a–e the errors are due to confusions of similar sounding words ; in 'f' the student chose the wrong meaning of 'found' ; in 'g' there is a misinterpretation of a fixed expression; in 'i' the wrong translation was caused by the lack of knowledge of the lexical item 'likely' and misinterpreting it as an adverb of 'like'.

II. Badly written answers

Consider the following example:

Question: Explain the term 'occupational split' in marriage.

Answer: The profaitein slit in marriage the hasbend work in his gob outside, and the women work work in the home. In sort time it seens that the hasbend thas not could to andrstand and to valiu the problem that his wife have as a housekeeper and in the ather hand She dont andrstand him. The Problem is that no ows of them could to appreciate the secceses of the atherown.

Same student answering the question in Hebrew:

משבר המקצוע בנישואים. הבעל עובד בעבודתו בחוץ והאשה עובדת במשק הבית. תוך זמן מה מתברר שהבעל אינו יכול להבין ולהעריך את הבעיות של אשתו כעקרת בית. הוא אינו מבין מה חשוב בהן כל כך ולעומת זאת היא אינה מצליחה לגלות עניין בבעיות המעסיקות אותו במקום עבודתו. בסופו של דבר הם אינם מוצאים אותו ענין זה בחברתו של זה.

With a little imagination and educated guessing the teacher will realize that *informationwise* the answer in English is identical to the one in Hebrew (and perfectly correct, according to the text). Therefore, on the assumption that a reading comprehension test examines comprehension and not expression, the answer in English should entitle the student to a full credit, just as the answer in Hebrew. But how could an EFL teacher avoid taking into account all the language errors in the evaluation? The tendency would probably be to lower the grade for a badly written answer even if it contained all the necessary information, i.e. to evaluate it in terms of both content understanding and expression ability, the latter being the very thing a reading comprehension test claims not to be testing.

Another problem involved in a badly written answer is its incomprehensibility to the teacher. In such a case he/she might decide to give no credit whatsoever to the answer, or, if he/she is sympathetic to try and read some information into the answer, assuming that the student had something correct to say but did not know how to express himself. Whether this optimistic assumption is right is hard to tell. The fairness of the evaluation of an incomprehensible answer is questionable since the teacher cannot be sure whether the items of information for which the student gets or loses credit are really there.

A much clearer indication of a student's comprehension would be in a written answer in Hebrew. Since no expression difficulties are involved (or if there are any, they are much fewer than in a foreign language) the information in the answer is comprehensible to the teacher and the language aspect of the answer will not bias the evaluation of its content.

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III. Answers incomplete in information

Consider the following example:

Question: What is unfair about the occupation of housework?

Answer: The author compares housework to menial labour. The criterions of success in the West world are only the husbands and not the wife's. Many women work at home even they do not like it.

Same student answering in Hebrew:

את עבודתה של עקרת הבית משווה המאמר לתפקיד שממלא שרת.
— עקרת הבית אינה מתקדמת בסולם הדרגות במקצועה.
— עקרת הבית אינה "מרוויחה כסף" עבור עבודתה.
סיבות אלו הן סטטוס בחברה המערבית להתקדמות, ואילו סטטוסים אלו נמנעים מעבודת עקרת הבית, ואילו הבעל, העובד במקצועו הקודם נהנה מהם. נשים רבות פונות לעבודת עקרת הבית למרות רצונן, והכלכלה הכללית נהנית מכך, כיון שהממשלה אינה צריכה לדאוג לצרכים היומיומיים של העובדים ואינה צריכה לשלם עבור סידורם.

The English answer, though not too bad from the language point of view, is clearly defective in its content. This, however, does not necessarily mean that the student did not possess the relevant information, since he was able to provide it in the Hebrew answer. From interviewing students it was found out that some of them, when required to write in English, prefer to 'play safe' and write down only those things which they think they can express correctly. The very knowledge that the grade will be lowered by language errors often induces them to omit information which they cannot express properly.

If, on the other hand, the students wrote in Hebrew they would not be at the disadvantage of not being able to provide the information they possessed. In other words, the true degree of the comprehension of those students could be revealed in Hebrew answers, not in English ones.

C. Thus, whenever a teacher is faced with an answer in English which is copied partially or completely from the text, written badly, or is incomplete in information, a number of questions arise as to what the student did in this answer, and also what the teacher does while correcting it. Did the student simply locate the answer and copy it, or did he understand what he wrote? Were the copied phrases or sentences used well consciously, or were they accidentally fitted into the answer? Did the student try to conceal his misunderstanding, or was he unaware of his misinterpretations? Did he provide an incomplete answer because he did not comprehend the text or because he tried to evade the problem of expressing himself in English?

Is the teacher grading the answer for its content, i.e. student's comprehension, or its language, i.e. student's writing ability? Can he always decode what the student actually wrote, or is he trying to read some correct information into the

answer? Is he likely to dismiss the answer altogether on the grounds of its incomprehensibility?

In view of the above problems, it seems that answering in English is not necessarily a successful method of testing reading comprehension. Written answers in Hebrew, on the other hand, can be of considerable advantage. The question of whether the answer has merely been located or really comprehended would not arise. The teacher would either get a correct translation or summary of the relevant passage or a clearly inappropriate answer, as in the examples of I, 1. If the student is unconscious of his misunderstanding of some phrases, mistranslation will reveal the errors as in the examples of I, 2. An incomplete answer in Hebrew clearly points to lack of comprehension, since the problem of expression is eliminated.

Assuming that students can express themselves in their mother-tongue with a reasonable degree of clarity, teachers will not face incomprehensible answers and the problem of whether or not to give the student the benefit of the doubt. The answer written in the mother-tongue will be evaluated on the basis of the information it contains without being affected by the language factor. Thus written answers in Hebrew seem to be an adequate test of reading comprehension, a test which is not only good, but also fair both to the student and the teacher.

LEARNING TO READ WITH COMPREHENSION

by *Renée Vorhaus*, Ben-Gurion University & Ministry of Education

In Israel, learning to speak and read English is a compulsory component of our educational curriculum. The problem that faces us as teachers of English as a Foreign Language is how we can most effectively teach and guide our pupils to become communicatively adept in the English language — in its total aspect of speaking, listening, reading, and writing. How, for instance, can we teach our pupils to read with comprehension material written in English?

Perhaps *the* most important aspect is to teach our pupils to have confidence in their ability to learn English. We can do so by having them rely on the strength that they bring to their reading situation. This strength does not come from their accumulated knowledge of the English language but rather from their ability to think and to communicate. In other words, what I am suggesting is that we should start off by having our pupils realize that they already know how and why to use language; and that the English language serves the same purpose as their native Hebrew language: that although languages may differ in vocabulary, grammar

and word order, they are similar in that the reason for their use is simply to communicate information, ideas, or feelings. Israeli pupils intuitively know this about their mother-tongue; when they are reading in their first language they are not concerned about how the language works or how it is being used, they simply try to comprehend what the author is conveying to them in that language. But when Hebrew-speaking or Arabic-speaking pupils are reading in the English language they mostly try to understand that particular author's linguistic information, his specific choice of vocabulary and grammatical structures. Thus, our goal as teachers is to bring our English-learning pupils to a level where they are confident to process their reading material in a communicative way and attend to the vocabulary and grammar only as integral and interdependent parts of a total meaningful whole. The question that follows, of course, is how to develop this confidence and how to guide our pupils to develop their own insights about the meaningful communication aspect of their English instruction.

There are numerous approaches that teachers have used in the classroom and can use, but I should like to share one way that I have found successful; and this is to structure a learning situation in which the pupils are constantly involved on a communicative level: a situation in which the pupils interact with, and think about, the *meaning* of their reading material and grammar instruction. In other words, making the pupils aware that knowing English vocabulary and grammar rules are not ends in themselves but serve as a basis for communicative intent. Of course, I am not saying that we do not need to teach our pupils how the English language operates (grammar and word order) or what its content is (vocabulary); for the sake of clarity it is necessary to fragment language instruction into teachable components. But we can make the teaching of this segmented information meaning-centered and contextual. We can involve our pupils in discussion and pose questions that will not simply provide them with the opportunity to learn vocabulary words and grammar rules but instead will enable them to interact with their reading material and *use and apply* the linguistic information in a meaningful way: in short, having them shift focus and having them view the learning of English as related to them and meaningful for them.

For example, in developing meaning for new vocabulary — rather than just asking for a definition or a translation, we can ask a question that will result in the pupils thinking about the communicative and meaningful aspect of that particular word: e.g. on reading the sentence "Pollution is becoming a great problem in the 20th Century", a question might be, "what are some examples of pollution in your neighborhood?".

Perhaps a word should be said here as to whether the teacher should use the English language or the Hebrew language in the classroom. It is my personal opinion (and admittedly opinions are merely personal points of view and not

absolutes) that English should be the language of instruction in the classroom; limited and controlled in the lower grades but natural and free in the higher grades. It is not necessary for pupils to know and identify each and every word, it is enough if they *understand* what is being said to them. Here I am speaking of teachers using the English language all of the time, not the pupils. I do think that pupils should be encouraged, even at times required, to converse and discuss in English but only *at the level of their ability.* This means that their pronunciation and grammar does not need to be perfect at all times, and that they should be allowed to use Hebrew for those words or concepts they do not know (or cannot remember!). The important point is that they constantly hear, as well as try to use. English in a communicative, contextual, and meaningful way. And there is an added benefit because it is always easier to learn vocabulary and grammatical constructions in a contextual and associative way, rather than through just committing a list of words and a set of grammar rules to memory.

Exploring the Text with the Pupils

So even in developing comprehension of reading material it is beneficial to focus on discussion: discussing and exploring ideas with the pupils in a manner in which they are active participants and contributors. The title of a selection is, of course, always a good in-depth discussion starter. The pupils can not only provide ideas of the possible content of the selection but can also add their own information, insights, experiences, and even pose their own questions about the topic. Such discussion-starter questions as: "What do you think this story/article will be about?" or "What kinds of events/characters/information will the author probably include/discuss/explain/give background for?" lead to pupil involvement and a consequent reading for meaning.

Discussion and questions about the general content of the selection should provide the focus for pupils' recognizing and understanding the author's ideas and information. At this point the pupils can read to answer such questions as: "What is the purpose of this paragraph/section?" or "Why has the author included this information/character/situation?" or "From what is said in this paragraph/by this character, what do you expect to read about next?"

Even in the early Grades we can ask questions that require involvement and thinking on the pupils' part. A question such as: "Why did Goldilocks run away?" will involve the pupil in the development and the idea of the story, whereas a question such as "What did Goldilocks do then?" merely requires a rote recall answer: "She ran away" which in no way indicates whether the pupil is involved in understanding the story or is just reading to recognize the words and the surface information.

Use of rather than Knowledge about

Even when the discussion has to deal with the understanding of grammatical structures, it is more meaningful for the pupil to answer a question that will focus on the use of the language rather than the knowledge of the language. Instead of asking "What is the sentence 'Mary was chased by John' an example of?" find out if they know the use of the past passive by asking a question such as: "Is there another way you can say 'Mary was chased by John'?" Even pupils who are just beginning to learn the fundamentals of English can become involved and actively develop the realization that English words may differ from the native language ones that they use but that the English words they are learning function in the same way as the native ones do; namely, that it is not just a word to remember but that it provides important information and meaning. For instance, a question such as: "Is there any way to tell whether Toni is a boy or a girl?" about the sentence "Toni walks fast because she wants to get home" leads pupils to think in terms of the meaning of the whole sentence rather than just the identification of the pronoun "she". Even words such as "and", "but", "instead", and so on can be discussed in terms of the author's intent and development of ideas or actions, and not just in terms of their function as grammar-carrying units.

Involving Pupils on a Thinking Level

So basically the idea is that in order for pupils to learn to comprehend their English reading material they should be involved, interact, and participate in instruction which is meaningful and contextually centered; and which allows them to view the learning of the English language as a basis for extracting meaning from English communication — be that communication in a spoken or a written form. Questions and discussions should involve pupils on a thinking level so that they can utilize the lexical and grammatical information that they are learning and so they can develop their own insights about the English language as a means of communication. This in turn will allow them to act upon their reading material rather than being acted upon. Maybe this can be likened to (with a great stretch of the imagination!) to the frog who, after falling in a vat of cream and being in danger of being drowned, deliberately trod and churned the cream until it turned into butter, which then provided him with the opportunity to escape. What saved the frog was not simply identifying the substance he had fallen into (vocabulary), nor the realization of one of its characteristic properties (grammar rules), but the using and application of this knowledge in a meaningful way!

And that too is the goal of our English as a Foreign Language instruction: to make the pupils aware that the purpose for learning vocabulary and grammar

rules is not to learn *about* the English language but for the purpose of using English — for *communicating.*

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NEWS FROM THE INSTRUCTIONAL TELEVISION CENTRE

PLANNING OF THE NEXT FIVE YEARS OF "ENGLISH BY TELEVISION"

by *Sheila Been* in co-operation with *Dvora Ben-Meir* and *Sionah Kronfeld*

I think it is fair to say that the "ENGLISH BY TELEVISION" series has made a worthwhile contribution to the teaching/learning of English as a Foreign Language in Israel over the last decade or so. It is also clear that in order to continue to make such a contribution many of our telecasts and course materials must be renewed. In order to formulate a policy for such a renewal the following factors must be taken into account:

1. *The class-room of the future* — we are on the brink of the technological era which has the potential of changing the traditional physical shape of the class-room, the role of the teacher and the role of the learner.
2. *Current trends in pedagogy in general and methodology of foreign language learning in particular* ... which suggest radical changes in the design of course materials.

It is logical that the above two factors be dependent on each other since the new technologies are needed to implement current methodological and pedagogical trends. Thus, any plans must take into account the close inter-relationship between these two factors. For the sake of simplicity, however, let us examine each separately.

The class-room of the future

Although it seems somewhat esoteric right now, there is no doubt that within the near future classes will have access to:

a) *Television*

— Coloured television on open circuit (as of the academic year, 1983/84 I.T.C. will broadcast in colour)

— Choice of channels (a second channel is in the offing and no doubt cable television will soon follow)

— Closed circuit video-systems, which will give access to a library of programmes to be used at the discretion of the teacher.

b) *Teletext*

This system is currently being used abroad as an information retrieval system for such purposes as the announcement of flight schedules, news headlines, stock exchange prices, sports results, etc. In Israel, the system has been acquired by I.T.C., and ways of using it for instructional purposes are being investigated. The

system operates on a regular T.V. set, to which a small console is attached (not much bigger than a pocket calculator); as long as the T.V. channel is open, any page can be called up by means of the console (obviously an index of pages will be provided). The page can contain text or graphics but it is static and non-interactive, except for a "reveal" capability which enables missing information (such as blanks in a CLOZE passage) to appear on the screen. The size of the screen limits the number of viewers who can work on a page. Therefore this medium is especially suitable for small group or individual use. In the coming year, we hope to investigate the potential for language-learning — we may find that the medium lends itself to grammatical exercises, or can provide data to trigger communicative activities, or perhaps to provide grammatical or spelling rules ; it may well be that the medium can be used for different purposes for different Grade levels and serve to fill a gap in a particular set of course materials. An important advantage of teletext is that, unlike a text-book, pages can be changed continuously and teachers can design their own pages and send them in for inclusion.

c) *Computers & micro-computers*

Clearly computers will play a valuable role in the class-room. Computer Hardware is being developed by leaps and bounds, and costs are decreasing at the same speed. Courseware suitable for language-learning is being researched both in Israel (see ENGLISH TEACHERS' JOURNAL No. 28, July 1983, pp. 46–73) and abroad and there is no doubt that eventually the computer will constitute an important component of any course of study. As the case of teletext, it can fulfil different purposes for different courses. It has, on the other hand, an enormous advantage over Teletext since it is interactive, and can be individualized and tailored to map out and fill each learner's special needs. This is the crucial problem in educational systems all over the world, and it seems that modern technology offers a possible solution. "Past attempts to deal with many of the problems of class-room instruction by modification of the existing system and standard techniques (e.g. smaller class size) have not been notable successes . . . it is improbable that we can make any major progress by fine trimming the existing system . . . the expenditures per pupil have increased markedly over the past years, but the performance of students has remained relatively constant. . . . What is needed is a technological break-through . . . The new technologies are such that only through their use in the educational process can future students attain essential new knowledge and skill." (Henston 1977. *The Promise & Inevitability of the Videodix in Education.* Paper submitted to the National Institute of Education WICAT Inc.) I believe that we can only capitalize on this new technology by creating courseware that exploits the ability of the computer to analyze and respond on a one-to-one basis (In the existing system a teacher does not have

this capability.). At the same time it is essential to keep in mind that the goals of education remain the same: preparation for personal growth and understanding; preparation for citizenship; preparation for work.

Current Trends in Pedagogy

It is generally accepted today that the focus must be on the learner rather than on the teacher or on the curriculum. We also have a better understanding of what language is, and what language-learning involves. We know, for example, that language is more than the sum of all the grammatical structures of that language. We know that communicative competence involves the ability to manipulate the linguistic system (grammar, lexicon and phonology), the ability to relate linguistic forms to the communicative functions they serve, the ability to use the language in a socially-appropriate way, and, last but not least, to operate in the language in real time.

I do not believe that any course of study can explicitly include all these facets. Yet many learners are communicatively competent by the time they leave school. It seems, therefore, that learners do have the capacity to learn things that have not been formally taught. It follows then that our responsibility as educators and teachers of English is to provide the right sort of environment and guidance, and to foster the learner's innate ability to learn. The implications of this are clear:

1. The language that is offered must be authentic and as rich as possible within the limits of the learner's interests and word knowledge. In other words, pupils should be exposed to language in use; language that has communicative value.
2. The course must contain elements that are intended for explicit and formal learning. But these elements should be based on analysis rather than on synthesis. The teaching points should focus on selected items from chunks of language that happen to be in the text, and with which the learner has to become familiar. Using the learner's "acquired" knowledge as a base, we can guide him through analysis to generate new chunks of language. The course material might suggest exactly which points should be picked up for this kind of focus, but it should be clear to teachers and learners alike that immediate mastery is not intended.

The internalization and application of grammatical rules, for example, should be seen as a process of gradual refinement achieved over a period through constant use. The text, chosen for its interest and relevance, would determine the teaching points. (In our existing courses the predetermined teaching point determines the text).

In this model of language learning the medium of television can be exploited to the full, since it enables pupils to see, hear and generally experience language with all the concomitant features of setting, role-relationships, gestures and facial expression — in other words, it exposes the learner to language as communication.

The other components of the course (the text-book, the audio-cassette, teletext, the computer programme or whatever) can then complement the course, each fulfilling that facet of language-learning to which it is best suited.

Based on this approach, we believe that we can revitalize the "ENGLISH BY TELEVISION" series with the help of telecasts purchased from abroad. The programmes will require careful selection in terms of language suitability and interest level but will not be restricted to programmes produced explicitly for foreign language learners. In this way we would achieve our objective of providing authentic language, we could overcome budgetary limitations, and, last but not least, we would save a tremendous amount of time. To this end we are already searching for alternatives to the Grade Five series "DAN AND EDNA", and to the series for Grades 8 and 9. The new series for the Upper Grades "HERE, THERE AND EVERYWHERE" is proceeding apace, and we have plans for a new series for Grades 11 and 12. At the same time we are exploring the possibility of re-editing the Grade 6 series "HERE WE ARE". The remaining programmes, "NEIGHBOURS", "GABBY AND DEBBY" and "DEBBY IN HOSPITAL" will be retained for the next few years, though the support material might be complemented by additional components.

I have tried to provide a brief outline of the thinking which will guide us in the development of the "ENGLISH BY TELEVISION" series over the next five years. Hopefully in the next issue of the JOURNAL we will be able to offer some concrete examples of how these thoughts are being realised.

(Editor's Note: readers are invited to comment on the controversial pedagogical and curricular suggestions made by the authors, suggestions which are by no means generally accepted.)

LETTERS TO THE EDITOR

Sir,

I am a recent "graduate" of this summer's retraining course for English teachers, sponsored by the Ministry of Education and Culture.

If doctors make the worst patients, then surely teachers make the most formidable students. Our group of thirty-odd participants included many teachers with several years of teaching experience in our countries of origin. We may have been a captive audience, but we demanded — and consistently received — topics of immediate relevance to our budding Israeli teaching careers, presented by experienced professionals. We complained of the heat, but we were stimulated and challenged by the onslaught of theory and practical methodology which each

of us knew to be of personal importance and value. By and large our barrage of lecturers were of very high caliber. I was impressed by the high and consistent level of professionalism, dedication and even idealism which they succeeded in conveying. In particular, two were especially outstanding: Mrs. Batia Rachmilevitz and Mr. Yair Zin.

Most of all, we are indebted to Mrs. Sheila Sar-Shalom, whose enthusiasm and refreshingly idealistic standards made us a cohesive group throughout the hot and stuffy days of July. She accomplished the Herculean task of coordinating and scheduling so many people and topics in such a short time, while accommodating the personal needs of each individual in our group. And all this while herself contributing her skills as a teacher of teachers.

I found the course tremendously valuable. So much so, in fact, that I shudder to think of facing my first Israeli school year without it. I wish to thank the Ministry for contributing to my professional growth in such a meaningful way. I approach my work in September with new enthusiasm and a clearer sense of direction.

Deena Halperin, Jerusalem

Sir,

The description of the Israeli Projects Implementing CAI in English, published in June 1983 (No. 28), includes an article by Hadas Achituv: "Computer-Assisted Teaching Project ... S.M.L."

The first paragraph contains the following statement: "It is the belief of S.M.L. that the teacher has a central role to play in the process of computer-assisted teaching. Without his/her involvement there is a decrease in the benefit accruing from the introduction of advanced technologies into education. This assumption is supported by research conducted in the U.S.A. (the PLATO experiment conducted by Murphy in 1977, and the TICCIT by Alderman in 1978)."

We agree with the "belief", but the research quoted does not "support" it. The evaluation showed no advantages for the CAI users and, in the case of Mathematics under theTICCIT system, the percentage of CAI students getting a grade with credit was one third (!) of those who got it under the normal lecture organization.

Dr. Luis Osin, Director
Department of Computers in Instruction
Centre for Educational Technology, Ramat Aviv

ENGLISH LITERATURE

(Correspondence in *The Jerusalem Post)*

Sir,

The English literature matriculation exam did not take place on May 9, 1983 as scheduled because the Secondary Teachers' Association instructed its English teachers not to cooperate with the Ministry of Education in giving this examination (and not because of the general teachers' strike held that day).

Th reasons given by the Secondary Teachers' Association for non-cooperation with the Ministry were financial, for English teachers were not to be remunerated for the extra work that this new examination entitled.

However, another major factor behind the non-cooperation of the English teachers was pedagogical, and the English inspectorate is fully aware of this.

English literature has been tested as part of the general external English matriculation exam ever since the *bagrut* came into existence. This year, for the first time, the English inspectorate decided to take literature out of the general examination and test it in a separate internal examination. When this plan was made known some time ago, many English teachers expressed their disapproval, as it is well-known that pupil motivation decreases when a subject, which was once tested externally, becomes an internally-tested subject.

The Hebrew literature examination underwent a similar transformation a few years ago. However, after only two years of internal testing, the Ministry of Education reinstated Hebrew literature as an external examination because teachers complained that the internal examination reduced the pupils' motivation and was thus detrimental to the teaching of their subject.

It is a foregone conclusion that a similar fate awaits English literature, since Israeli pupils are not likely to be more highly motivated towards English literature than they were towards Hebrew literature.

Unfortunately, it is too late to reincorporate the literature questions in the English matriculation exam, scheduled for June 27. However, it is to be hoped that the English inspectorate will rethink its policy and decide to reincorporate English literature in next year's external exam.

Ruth Gat (English teacher)

Sir,

Your correspondent Ruth Gat (May 27) errs in claiming that the English Inspectorate of the Ministry of Education and Culture was "fully aware" of the "non-cooperation" of English teachers for "pedagogical" reasons in the new internal eamination in "reading literary and/or technical texts", beyond a letter from

a group of teachers in her area (a group of which she is presumably a leading member) and some verbal reservations expressed at various in-service meetings during the past two years (the new programme was first announced in 1981). The examination did not take place for trade union reasons and the "non-cooperation" was due to the question of financial remuneration, as she points out in her letter.

Replacing the former examination in literary set texts (as part of the external *bagrut* examination) by an internal examination was undertaken for the following reasons:

1. It enables greater autonomy for each school (or even teacher) in the choice of texts for study (within a very wide syllabus).

2. It enables greater autonomy for each teacher in writing the question-paper for the internal examination.

3. It reinforces the status of English in the curriculum as a proficiency subject, training pupils to attain as high a level as possible in all the four language skills of reading comprehension ,listening comprehension, speaking and writing.

The inclusion of set literary texts in the external examination paper led to too many pupils (and many teachers) overconcentrating on these texts and over-learning (overteaching) model answers to possible context questions, and as a result neglecting the proficiency skills involved in the very name of the subject learnt in school: "English as a foreign language."

Pupils will therefore continue studying these texts, probably even more widely and with more enjoyment and appreciation, since they will not be continually "spotting" externally-set questions or learning model answers by heart.

There are of course teachers who oppose the new internal examination. Some of them would rather teach English literature than English language, a preference to which they are *not* entitled professionally, since they are expected by parents, employers, universities and the public as a whole to teach the English language as a means of international communication. Unfortunately, there are others who merely see their task as getting pupils through an examination, a task which is much easier if the examination includes questions on set texts (*bagrut* examiners are very familiar with examinees whose literature answers are obviously memorized summaries of the texts and whose performance on the rest of the paper is pitiful). Yet others do not wish to have the responsibilities involved in the degree of autonomy granted by this new programme, a policy which the Ministry wishes to extend.

But for the other teachers who do not fall into these categories and are still not happy with an internal examination in reading set texts, I am sure that their fears of loss of motivation are unfounded. Pupils will take it seriously, both as part of

their language learning syllabus and because of their interest in and appreciation of good literature — and for the not-so-motivated because the mark for the internal examination will be entered into their *bagrut* certificate (on the page reserved for internal examinations).

Ruth Gat compares the English literature examination with the Hebrew literature examination, but she overlooks the essential difference that Hebrew literature (including English literature in Hebrew translation, e.g. a Shakespeare play) is a subject in itself, whereas the set texts in English are subsumed within the general programme of reading comprehension.

Raphael Gefen

Chief Inspector for English, Ministry of Education

GYMNASIA HERZLIA

תיאור התכניות השונות בהוראת אנגלית, שבגימנסיה הרצליה, תל־אביב, לרבות ניצול "שעתיים השהיה" אצל המורים והשימוש בציוד האלקטרוני הרב שבבית־הספר (מעבדת לשון, טלוויזיה במעגל סגור, מחשבים).

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תמצית המאמרים שמופיעים בגליון זה:

INFORMATION FOR ENGLISH TEACHERS

"עלון למורים לאנגלית" ו"דפי הדרכה לאנגלית"; מילון בהוצאת לונגמן; מינוי חדש במועצה הבריטית; ספרי לימוד חדשים; עתונים באנגלית מפרשטת; הבחינה בהבנת הנשמע תשמ"ג—1983; ידיעות מהועדה להוראת אנגלית בסיוע המחשב.

RELIABILITY IN ORAL TEST

משוב מניסוי בבחינה בעל־פה בבחינות הבגרות; ניתן לבוחנים דף למדידת מיומנויות־משנה (שטף, אוצר מילים, דקדוק, הגייה), בניסיון להגביר את מהימנות ההערכה.

TRANSLATION AS A BAGRUT SUBJECT

המשך הדיון על מקומו של התרגום מאנגלית לשפת האם של הנבחן, במסגרת לימודי אנגלית בבית הספר התיכון.

HEBREW ANSWERS TO ENGLISH QUESTIONS

ניסוי במתן תשובות בעברית לשאלות באנגלית על קטע בהבנת הנקרא באנגלית. בבחינות הבגרות באנגלית בשלוש י"ל ובארבע י"ל הונהג ממועד קיץ תשמ"ג מבחן כזה בנוסף על קטע אחר, בו התשובות ניתנות באנגלית.

THE UTILITY OF ORAL READING

מקומה של הקריאה בקול בהוראת האנגלית כשפה זרה. מטפחים את מיומנויות הקריאה הדמומה ולא הקריאה בקול, אשר עלולה לפגוע בהרגלי קריאה טובים.

DEVELOPING INDEPENDENT READING COMPREHENSION

טיפוח היכולת להבנת הנקרא באופן עצמאי על ידי התלמיד. תרגילים ומטלות אשר מביאים את התלמיד ליכולת הזאת, בשנים הראשונות בלמידת שפה.

LEARNING TO READ WITH COMPREHENSION

יש להפעיל את התלמידים בפיענוח משמעות הקטע יותר מאשר בניתוח הדקדוק ואוצר המלים. לימוד האנגלית כשפה זרה למטרות קומוניקציה; חשוב השימוש בשפה על הידע אודות השפה.

LEARNING AND RE-LEARNING TO READ

על הצורך ללמד מחדש את מיומנות הקריאה, כאשר מגיע התלמיד לבית הספר התיכון, ובמיוחד התאמת הצליל והאות כדי לשפר את הבנת הטכסט, את הגיית המילה ואת הכתיב.

"REWRITE SENTENCE" DRILLS

הצעות לתירגול הבחינה החדשה (5 י"ל, בבחינות הבגרות) ב"שיכתוב משפטים", בהתאם לדפוסי דיקדוק שונים.

משרד החינוך והתרבות
המזכירות הפדגוגית – הפיקוח על הוראת האנגלית

עלון למורים לאנגלית

(כולל "דפי הדרכה לאנגלית")

מספר 29

טבת תשמ"ד, ינואר 1984

עלון למורים לאנגלית

Eric/CII
FEB 6 1984
RECEIVED

(כולל "דפי הדרכה למורים לאנגלית")

29 טבת תשמ"ד
דצמבר 1983

משרד החינוך והתרבות
המזכירות הפדגוגית — הפיקוח על הוראת האנגלית